The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1898.

The Week.

It can hardly be said that either the war or peace has made much progress during the week. At Santiago, the American lines have been extended about the doomed city, and the fleet has shown its ability to drop shells in it; but repeated summons to surrender have been met by persistent refusal, apparently under instructions from Madrid. If the revolution in Spain hangs fire, our own proceeds apace, and the first of our island acquisitions has been made (under the pressure of "military necessity"), which the sober sense of the country, and even of Congress, had rejected in time of peace.

The long struggle over the annexation of Hawaii is ended, and the deed is accomplished. All that could be said against the policy of annexation has been said, and it would be useless now to repeat it. All that could be said against the means employed to accomplish the object, beginning with the illegal act of Minister Stevens five or more years ago, and ending with the joint resolution of Congress by which the treaty was superseded, has been said. It is sufficient to say now that the annexation project was dead beyond the hope of resurrection when the war with Spain broke out. That event and Admiral Dewey's victory at Manila brought it to life once more. The argument that we must have a half-way house between San Francisco and the Philippines carried the day, although it is not yet settled that we are to retain the Philippines or any part of them. Our own views of the annexation policy are not changed by the vote of the Senate, but we shall hope that the consequences flowing from it may be better than our anticipation, and that the various kinds of leprosy, moral, physical, and industrial, prevailing in the islands may not be engrafted upon the United States.

The Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department issues a publication concerning the Hawaiian Islands which contains many figures and statements of interest. The feelings aroused by the struggle over annexation have been so bitter, however, as to color statistics. Misrepresentations concerning the race and nativity of the inhabitants have been made and exposed, and the most conflicting statements concerning their morals, their health, their prosperity, and their political capacity have been presented by Congressmen of opposing views. Concerning the compensation of laborers, also, the accounts given vary extremely, and on all these matters the publication of the Bureau of Statistics contains little but hearsay evidence. As to commerce, its statements are official and presumptively trustworthy, but they tell us little that is new. It has long been known that practically all the export trade of these islands was with the United States, and that this country supplied 70 per cent. of the Hawaiian imports. There is no reason, therefore, to expect any material increase of commerce with our new possessions. We had it all before, substantially, and there is no reason to expect it to be enlarged to an extent at all commensurate with the expense which annexation will occasion us. In fact, according to the report of the Bureau of Statistics, the market for labor of all kinds is overstocked in Hawaii, and our Consul-General advises all Americans, except capitalists, to keep away from the islands. Laborers who may go there seeking employment at high wages will be disappointed.

Perhaps the most interesting part of this publication relates to the Hawaiian currency. We had already a bewildering variety of moneys in this country, but we now have several more. The principal currency in Hawaii is paper, "based on" silver. Banks keep two accounts with their depositors, silver and gold, and when a check is drawn it may be made payable in either metal. In case the check does not specify the metal, the law provides that the holder may demand gold, if the amount is over $10. Under this system, it seems, gold is at a premium of 1 per cent. Evidently we have annexed a system of bimetallism that has some important features, and it would not be surprising if the adherents of silver should advocate its general adoption, omitting the provisions of the law in favor of redemption in gold. The total currency of the islands is estimated at $3,500,000, the silver money being $1,000,000, of which $300,000 is held by the Government to secure that amount of paper. The debt assumed by the United States is over $4,000,000, and as the internal taxation already averages $6.48 per head, no great increase over the present revenue of $2,283,000 is to be anticipated. There is little in these figures to encourage the belief that we have obtained a bargain from the commercial point of view in assuming the responsibility of governing Hawaii.

The adjournment of Congress was marked by scenes of boisterousness which at one time threatened to end in a free fight on the floor of the House, but finally terminated in a jubilee of patriotic songs and shouts, rather undignified, but pardonable under the circumstances. In the Senate the man who is always wrong (Mr. Morgan of Alabama) protested against any adjournment whatsoever. It was his opinion that Congress ought to be in continuous session as long as the war lasts, to support the President, and especially to help him in the arduous task of negotiating a peace, if peace should be offered. Apparently, no attention was paid to this suggestion, for the vote to adjourn was adopted without a division. Among the measures left without action, the McCleary banking bill and the Nicaragua Canal bill are the only ones of importance. Although very few measures have passed, the session has been the most momentous that the country has witnessed since the civil war. It has brought on a war with Spain, has annexed foreign territory to the United States, and has paved the way perhaps to still greater acquisitions and greater embroilment. Whether these doings shall prove a blessing or a curse to the United States and to the world, the future only can determine.

The war, and the means of raising revenue to carry it on, and the annexation of Hawaii, have embraced so large a share of public attention that everything else has been obscured. Sixty-two bills, large and small, have been passed on these subjects. A bankruptcy bill has been passed, a commission has been created for settling disputes with Canada, the Bering Sea award has been settled, an old war claim has been paid (with a resulting scandal), a law for the arbitration of disputes between railways and their employees has been enacted, and the usual number of private pension bills have been "put through." Nothing that Congress has done, however, has been so generally approved as its adjournment. It is pretty safe to say that if it had adjourned early in April the country would now be at peace, the reconcentrados would have plenty to eat, and liberty in Cuba would have been equally well secured. This, we are inclined to think, is the private opinion of President McKinley and the majority of his Cabinet, and of our leading military, naval, and diplomatic officers.

The total amount appropriated by Congress during its recent session, of course, is larger than usual by hundreds of millions, because of the war expenses, actual and prospective. The figures foot up $892,527,991, of which over 40 per cent., $361,788,095, was on war account. Permanent appropriations to meet sinking-fund requirements and interest on the

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public debt required $117,836,220. Excluding these two items, the total for ordinary running expenses of the government is $412,903,676. Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, for the Republicans, "pointed with pride" to the fact that this sum "is only $4,246,816.75 more than was appropriated at the last session of the last Congress for the same purposes (including the appropriations made during the recent extra session), which apparent excess is almost doubly offset by the increased appropriation of $8,070,872.46 for the payment of pensions on account of the fiscal year 1898, provided for in a deficiency act at this session." Mr. Sayers, for the Democratic minority of the same committee, retorted that, "when it is borne in mind that no river and harbor bill has passed this Congress, it will be seen that the appropriations by the present Congress have largely exceeded those of any other Congress for a like period for many years, and that, too, without including the appropriations for war expenditures." While no river and harbor bill was passed, the sundry civil act carries $14,031,613.56 to meet contracts authorized by previous Congresses for river and harbor works. Mr. Sayers stated that the appropriations of $361,788,095 for war expenses are intended to cover those to be incurred up to the first of January next; but Mr. Cannon pointed out that, in addition to the appropriations made specifically for expenses of the conduct of the war since its inception and for the first six months of the fiscal year beginning July 1, contracts have been authorized in the naval appropriation act for new war-vessels and for their armament for which Congress will be called upon in the future to appropriate an amount estimated at $19,216,156.

The appointment of a large commission to study the relations between labor and capital is a piece of Congressional extravagance that is, under the present circumstances, inexcusable. There have been many commissions of this kind, and no one has ever been able to specify any beneficial results from their investigations. They had one in England lately, composed of very eminent men, but as it sat for a number of years and its reports, as Lord Salisbury said, would cover several acres of ground, the public was naturally incapable of appreciating what was accomplished. If our Government had money to waste, it might waste it in this way better than in some others; but as it is running in debt and imposing new taxes, it is discreditable to allow an expenditure of more than a hundred thousand dollars, probably, to pay the salaries and expenses of a number of people whose incompetence is established in advance, and whose opinions when rendered will command no attention. This language may seem harsh, but it is justified by a glance at the list of appointments made from the Senate and the House of Representatives. It is hard to believe that the Vice-President and the Speaker did not make these appointments with the intention of bringing the whole investigation into contempt. The Senators named are Messrs. Kyle, Penrose, Mantle, Daniel, and Mallory; the Representatives are Messrs. Bell, Livingston, Lorimer, Gardner, and Lovering. Mr. Lovering is a manufacturer of cotton goods on a large scale, and a man of much intelligence. The others are rabid Populists, silverites, and professional politicians, whose conclusions might as well be formulated now as after they have taken evidence. It will be the height of folly to pay the slightest attention to the proceedings of a body constituted after this fashion, even if the nine members named by the President are better than those chosen from Congress.

The President's call upon the nation to give thanks to the Almighty for the success of our arms could but grate upon the finest religious sensibility. However well-intentioned, his proclamation read too much like a vainglorious triumphing over a weak foe. There is a great difference between our present war and the civil war. Then our very national life was endangered. Then we went about with a sense of instant peril. It was natural, it was devout, in those critical years, after a great victory, to lift up the instinctive cry, "Thank God!" But our war with Spain has never struck home to the national consciousness in any such way. Saying nothing of the manner in which it was brought on, or the men who were responsible for it, it has never aroused a feeling of national danger, never been anything more than an unequal combat of which the event could be in no doubt. Therefore, no victory, no series of victories, can come as a great deliverance. As leading to the peace which we all desire we rejoice in them, but our fervent thanksgivings will rise to heaven only when peace actually comes. And to the really devout mind there is something shocking in this particular arguing that the divine favor is ours because we have crushed a feeble enemy. True reverence does not thus press the details of slaughter as a reason for praise of the Highest. As the lofty-minded Lincoln said to Americans, the Almighty has his own purposes; and a becoming awe, a reverent silence, a standing still to see the salvation of God, are much more fitting in the midst of war, as Lincoln reminded us, than a loud and boastful Te Deum.

Public opinion in Spain is a thing difficult to gauge. The mass of the people is non-reading, inarticulate, and concerns itself very little with questions of government. But there appears to be no doubt that Spanish national sentiment is now turning very decidedly in favor of peace. There is no doubt whatever that our own country ardently desires peace. With both of two nations at war desirous of peace, it would seem as if the end of the war could not be far away. But this does not necessarily follow. Both nations just as strongly desired to keep the peace when it was broken. They went to war against their will. They may have to keep on fighting unwillingly. The practical difficulties of agreeing on terms of peace are very great. Spain might begin by offering now what she refused at the beginning of the war—that is, the independence of Cuba. Without saying whether peace ought now to be made on that condition, it is certain that it cannot be. President McKinley will not have a free hand. Any treaty of peace he may negotiate will have to be submitted to the Senate, and how moderate and generous and judicial that body will be we can all guess. If polled to-day it would undoubtedly insist upon exacting from Spain all that could be exacted if her last ship were sunk, her last gun dismounted, her last army defeated. This is what makes one hesitate about too confidently reckoning upon an early peace. Spain may say, "If we are to lose all, we will at least fight to the bitter end." As we said before the war, a nation may have a war any day it wants it; but peace, once thrown away, is the costly and difficult thing to get back again.

The reported intention of Germany to seize one of the Philippine Islands for a coaling-station need not produce any disturbance on this side of the water. Such seizure would be an act of war against Spain, not against the United States, provided the island were not occupied by us at the time. The Philippine Islands are some 2,000 in number. We occupy a very small space on one of them, and it is not certain that we shall continue to hold that. Everything depends on the conditions of the treaty of peace, when it comes. It might be construed as the sign of an unfriendly spirit if Germany should seize one of the 2,000 islands while we are making up our mind whether we want any more territory in that quarter of the globe than we now occupy, but in the eye of international law it would not be an act of hostility toward us. It would be distinctly so toward Spain, however, unless the latter had previously ceded the island to Germany. Without such cession it would make Germany an ally or a co-operator with the United States in war against Spain. It may be added that we have no interest to prevent Germany from acquiring a coaling-station in the Philippines.

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Lieut. Hobson's report on his daring venture with the Merrimac explains for the first time why he was not able fully to block the channel out of the harbor of Santiago. That a passage was left alongside the wreck was known, even before Cervera used it to make his dash to destruction. But just why the enterprise had failed could only be guessed, till Hobson came out of the enemy's lines to say that the Merrimac's rudder had been shot away, and the collier torpedoed, by the Spanish. This made it impossible to swing her across the channel. The Lieutenant, who appears to be as modest as he is cool and fearless, says that he was "chagrined" when he found himself unable to carry out his plans. Chagrin is not the sensation which most men would feel when on a steamer torn asunder by dynamite and rained on by shot and shell from the enemies' guns; but, after all, it was a true mark of heroism. Lieut. Hobson deprecated the cheers that welcomed him back to the American lines: "Any of you would have done it." Very likely. We know that practically every man on the fleet offered to go with him when volunteers were called for. Such high appeals to bravery and duty command their own response. But the men below—the engineers, exposed to death without being able to strike a blow; the stokers, whose enemy is the cruel heat in which they have to work—where does their heroism come in? Of course, in the same self-forgetful devotion to their duty which marks some world-resounding deed of an officer like Hobson. That was a frightful detail of the Spanish flight to ruin—the officers having to stand over gunners and stokers with drawn pistols to keep them to their task.

Still another State is to have a body of colored soldiers commanded by colored officers. A company of black troops has been raised at Des Moines, Iowa, and it has been decided that its officers shall also be black men. This decision was reached after a white man had been picked out for the captaincy and his nomination had even been sent to the Senate. The negroes had an admirable candidate for the place in the person of a man who had served in the regular army and had proved himself abundantly competent for the position. But, notwithstanding all the arguments in favor of black officers for black troops raised in the capital of a Republican State, it looked for a long time as though the whites would insist upon having the command.

The discussion which has already opened as to the proper relations of the United States toward Cuba and other Spanish territory that may come under our control, serves to show how far away this nation has already got from the theory as to government upon which the reconstruction of the South after the civil war was based. A striking illustration of the change which has come over the public mind in this respect is afforded by a communication and an editorial article in a recent issue of the Indianapolis *Journal*. Maurice Thompson begins his letter with a reference to "our tradition that no people can be righteously governed without their own voluntary consent to the governmental act," and says that "upon this theory we have put behind us more than a century of brilliant history"; but he adds that, "like all other theories, it has more than once proved its correctness by the exceptions to its universal applicability." One such exception, in his opinion, is the Indian race, which has not been found, as a rule, capable of self-government. Another is the African race in the South. His reasoning, of course, leads to the conclusion that we cannot accept the principle of "the consent of the governed" in Cuba. "The negroes of South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana," says Mr. Thompson, "are much fitter for the franchise than a large majority of Cuban laborers. They have lived in better company, under more enlightened influences, yet restriction has been found necessary."

The significance of all this is found in the fact that the *Journal* endorses the contention of its contributor that the "consent of the governed" has proved an unworkable theory, even in States of the present Union. "Mr. Thompson," it says, "shows the absurdity of the universal application of this principle." It admits that, "if all peoples in the world were intelligent, all governments could be safely based upon the consent of the governed," but it maintains that "until the inhabitants of a country can be instructed in the theory of self-government, it is better for that country to be under the tuition of a nation of progressive and humane purpose." Nor does the *Journal* shrink from the logical conclusion of this argument as respects disfranchisement at the South. Yet it is the leading Republican newspaper in Indiana, and only eight years ago it was earnestly supporting an Indiana President in his effort to push through Congress a force bill, under which the negro majorities in Mississippi, Louisiana, and South Carolina, now admitted to be unfit to rule, were to be assured by the federal Government the right to rule the white minorities.

It was not so very long ago that our reckless currency experiments, coming along with a period of trade depression, were virtually driving gold out of this country's circulation. Between February 1, 1894, and March 1, 1896, the amount of gold in general circulation in the United States decreased no less than $82,000,000, and this occurred in the face of an output of new gold from the American mines, during the period, of more than $100,000,000. It will be remembered what embarrassments were occasioned to the Government's financial operations by this outflow of the standard metal, and the suspension of gold payments by both Treasury and banks is a matter of recent history. To what degree the situation has been altered, the estimate of the amount of money circulating in the United States outside the Treasury, July 1, is interesting evidence. This statement shows that the stock of gold in circulation has increased since March, 1896, no less than $215,600,000. It stands to-day at by far the highest total in the country's history. The use of gold in payments between the banks, and between them and the Treasury, has again grown very general—a curious instance of which is found in the fact that one day's payments last week to the Treasury under the new revenue law increased the Government's gold reserve $2,400,000, whereas the day's increase in total available balances in the Treasury, including its gold, was only $3,700,000.

England has been having one of her periodical "No-Popery" crazes. Sir William Harcourt sounded the alarum this time. A bill was before Parliament regulating benefices, and he seized the occasion to denounce the popish practices and leanings of the Anglo-Catholics. They were trying to undo the English Reformation. They were trying to carry the Church of England over to Rome. As for the individual clergy who were at this nefarious work, Sir William denounced them as being in a position which was "illegal, immoral, and indecent." It was wonderful to see how the English still respond to this old appeal. Parliament and press were convulsed. Sir William's daily mail leaped to thousands of letters, applauding or denouncing. It was urged that he was not exactly the man to lead such a holy war. His own devotion to evangelical doctrine had not been known to be absorbing. He was even accused of partisan motives, and the charge was not thought incredible. Other men might seem better fitted to discuss the nice questions of casuistry involved. Prof. Sidgwick, for example, can reason sweetly about the situation of clergymen bound by a creed which they do not believe. But Sir William rose in his character of blunt, bluff English squire, despising metaphysical cobwebs, frankly hating the Pope, and pounded out his conviction that the Romanizing clergy were but so many rogues. The immense sensation caused by the incident shows how little the old cries have lost their power to set John Bull puffing and glaring.

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ENEMY'S PROPERTY AT SEA.

There is no doubt that the Jingo international jurist is hugely delighted with the retention by our Government of the right of capture of private property at sea. Yet it is the one thing so far done in the war wholly at variance with the past traditions and policy as well as interests of our Government.

The proof of this may be found collected in an article by Mr. W. L. Penfield in the current number of the *North American Review*. In brief, Mr. Penfield shows that our Government adopted the principle that private property at sea—ships and cargoes—should be exempt from capture, in the treaty of 1785 with Russia; proposed it to England, France, and Russia in 1823; and in 1856, at the time of the Treaty of Paris, in order to get it adopted by the Powers, offered to abolish privateering. In 1861 Mr. Seward favored its acceptance, in 1870 Mr. Fish expressed to the Prussian Government the hope that we might be "gratified by seeing it universally acknowledged"; in 1871 it was adopted through his exertions in our treaty with Italy, which stipulates that in case of war between the United States and Italy "the private property of their respective citizens and subjects, with the exception of contraband of war, shall be exempt from capture or seizure on the high seas or elsewhere by the armed vessels or by the military forces of either party" (except in the attempt to enter a blockaded port).

In Europe several countries have during the last hundred years made strenuous efforts in the same direction. In 1792 the French Assembly declared in favor of prohibiting the capture of private, unarmed ships, and negotiated to that end with other states; in 1823 France, intervening in Spain, directed its navy to capture only vessels of war and vessels violating an effective blockade; in 1866 Austria prohibited the capture of enemy's ships and cargoes, on condition of reciprocity. Germany, Italy, and Russia adopted substantially the same policy, and in 1868 the North German Diet voted for an international convention to secure the principle of the inviolability of private property on the high seas. In 1870 Prussia, in the Franco-Prussian war, agreed to adopt the policy on condition of reciprocity, and Italy has by law agreed to the principle whenever reciprocally adopted.

There is no doubt that the principle would long ago have been adopted all over the world but for the opposition of England, which is based on a lingering idea that the right to destroy private property at sea is a valuable belligerent right; and we have now reinforced England's opposition by abandoning our national policy on the subject in the present war, although we have at the same time substantially abandoned the allied right of privateering.

The English idea on the subject is a mere delusion, a survival, like the other English ideas once firmly held, though now abandoned, of the right of search and "paper blockades," "once a subject always a subject," and the queer notion of sovereignty over the sea itself, which came down from the Middle Ages and are gradually being dissipated by the progress of modern enlightenment. To those who know anything of the history of international law and the causes which develop it, there is something rather comical in this antiquated piece of mediæval barbarism being cherished in England. That it should be kept alive in the United States, whose interests are most opposed to it, and whose Government on numerous occasions has endeavored to suppress it, is still more so.

The real reason why all enlightened opinion is on one side in this matter, is that experience has shown that the right to capture private property at sea during war involves useless injury or, it may be, ruin to non-combatants. It is usually said that the abandonment of the right of plunder on land involves the exemption of private property at sea. But a far better case can be made out for a free hand on land than on the water. At first sight, the old system of sacking the cities of an enemy had everything in its favor. The Thirty Years' War in Germany actually ruined the country for generations; Magdeburg and the other places that Tilly occupied were made literally waste places. The wealth of the rich towns of the low countries that Alva took he appropriated. The same thing may be said of the old custom of holding prisoners to ransom, the lingering effects of which, curiously enough, are said to explain why the Spaniards were so unwilling to part with Hobson. Until comparatively recent times, the prisoners of importance were regularly held for ransom, just as prisoners of no importance (whom it cost money to keep) were knocked on the head. If the only consideration in war were that of making it as terrible as possible, these good old customs on land were more important than the right to capture enemy's private property at sea; the subjects of every nation have private property of great value on land, while by no means every nation has a shipping or commerce of great consequence. Nevertheless, the modern world has completely eliminated from international law the right to seize and appropriate private property on land, and where "requisitions" are made on towns, or indemnities exacted from the conquered, the money is not taken out of the pockets of individual owners of property, but is levied like a tax upon the community or locality, and thus, like any other public burden, is made to fall as equally and justly as possible. Even the five milliards taken by Germany from France did not ruin any individual non-combatants, and its payment will be spread over years, if not generations.

There are reasons, too, why, in the case of property at sea, the right to seize private ships and goods has recently diminished in importance. A hundred years ago, when commerce hardly existed, and the rights of neutrals were scantily recognized, a nation which had any commerce was obliged, in time of war, to protect its mercantile marine by great fleets of war-ships, which "convoyed" merchant ships from port to port. The protection of the merchant fleet against the enemy was consequently very laborious and expensive. In modern times, however, nothing of the sort is done. The belligerent, instead of protecting his mercantile fleet, lets his commerce transfer itself to neutral bottoms. This is what actually took place during our civil war. The escape of the *Alabama* caused a destruction of shipping, but the commerce of the country went on as usual in French, English, and German bottoms. We were justly indignant at the behavior of England in letting the *Alabama* get out, but could not prove at Geneva more than $15,500,000 actual loss. This transfer to neutral bottoms will take place in every war, and as it is open to any belligerent, the right to capture enemy's ships and cargoes has no effect on the fortunes of the war. Dr. Lawrence, in his well-known handbook on 'International Law,' as a result of his examination of this branch of the subject, states that since 1856 "ordinary belligerent trade has been safe at sea under a neutral flag." The rights of neutrals, that is, of nations at peace, have been extended until they have practically destroyed the value of the right to capture private property at sea. We may ruin a few poor devils of Spaniards by it, and by it help to make a few miserable women and children starve, but it will not hasten the end of the war by an hour. It is simply so much needless suffering for no end whatever.

THE STATE'S DUTY TO THE LAWYER.

Mr. George F. Hoar delivered last week an address before the Virginia Bar Association on the relation of the lawyer to the state, which has attracted a good deal of attention. Mr. Hoar occupies a position, both as a lawyer and public man, which insures him a hearing, and we have read his address with some curiosity to see what view his experience at the bar and in the Senate leads him to take of the matter.

We are inclined to think that on the whole the importance of the address lies chiefly in the collection of facts made by the orator to show the powerful influence exerted by judges and lawyers in the government of the United States. The fact itself is, of course, not disputed by any one, but many undisputed gene-

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ral facts gather significance from the historical statistics on which they rest. Mr. Hoar's résumé in brief is as follows: Of the fifty-two signers of the Declaration of Independence, twenty-four were lawyers. The Constitutions of the original thirteen States were almost wholly the work of lawyers. Of the twenty-four Presidents twenty, and of the twenty-four Vice-Presidents eighteen, have been lawyers. "To-day the President, the Vice-President, the Speaker of the House, five of the eight members of the Cabinet, and 302 out of the 446 members of the two houses of Congress were bred to the bar." Of thirty-three Secretaries of States, all but two, Mr. Everett and Mr. Blaine, have been lawyers.

Coming to the Supreme Court, it is a fact which will no doubt cause some surprise to any one who has not carefully studied the history of that tribunal, that its power, great as it always has been, is at the present day used with vastly greater freedom than it ever was at any previous period in its history. We are accustomed to look back to the period of Chief Justice Marshall and that of Chief Justice Taney as being those in which, from opposite points of view, the federal bench, and especially the Supreme Court, were most potent. But the facts, notwithstanding the greater lustre surrounding the names of the earlier judges—and notwithstanding, too, the internal division and weakness revealed by such reversals as those in the legal-tender cases and in the income-tax case—do not bear out this view. The power of the Supreme Court, as illustrated by its willingness to hold acts of Congress invalid as being repugnant to the Constitution, seems to have steadily increased. In the first seventy-five years of the court's existence, Mr. Hoar finds but a single case—that of Marbury vs. Madison—in which an act of Congress was set aside, while since the war there have been fifteen, six of these being political, and dealing with legislation arising out of the civil war. In each of these, "the court held unconstitutional the legislation of the political party to which a majority of its members belonged—the party to which that majority had owed its appointment," and so "baffled and brought to naught the policy in regard to the great matter of reconstruction of the party to which I myself belong, and the school of politics in which I have been trained, and which I suppose was also that of a majority of the American people."

As the address was in great measure an appeal to Virginians on behalf of the Supreme Court, *i. e.*, against such attacks upon it as the Virginian Populist Democrats meditate, it was not rhetorically for Mr. Hoar's interest to make out the Supreme Court an oppressive or unduly powerful body, and no doubt on this account he omitted reference to the federal decisions ending in the unanimous judgment of the court of last resort in the Debs case, under which the judiciary of the United States now exercises an authority for the protection of life and property against organized violence which is certainly as striking an illustration of the growth and solidity of its power as the test-oath or civil-rights cases.

Such facts undoubtedly show that the bar and bench have a position in the American commonwealth of peculiar significance, and that the relation of the lawyer to the state is one which we cannot too carefully consider. But what has Mr. Hoar to say about it? He confines himself to pointing out that the member of the bar is actually an officer of state, offers some suggestions as explanations of his influence, which we need not examine because they would apply to one country as well as another (we may be very sure that the exceptional position held by the bar and judiciary here is due to exceptional causes), and then reads the old homily about the duty of the lawyer to the state, which we may abridge by giving a few of his leading statements:

> "Our profession is not the road to wealth; . . . the American lawyer is not of the class of men who serve their country for hire. . . . He is like Agassiz. . . . He has no time to make money. . . . He is thinking of the great principle he is struggling to establish in jurisprudence. He is thinking of his imperilled client. He is thinking of an honorable success in a generous controversy. He is thinking of country. He is thinking of duty. He is to be ranked with the clergyman, with the teacher, with the man of letters, with the man of science, with the judge, and the statesman, and the soldier, who expects to get nothing from life but a comfortable support for himself and household."

This picture of the ideal lawyer has been drawn a thousand times, and, considering the actual condition of the bar and its ambitions and achievements in any community of which we have any knowledge, and especially in the United States, it is a remarkable proof of our love of improvement and our desire to keep alive a high legal standard that it should continue to be regularly produced for the edification of the young at commencements and meetings of bar associations. But we must venture to point out that there is no use in painting this beautiful portrait, or dilating on the opportunities of a glorious career for the lawyer, as the result of his performance of his duty to the state, unless the state—that is, we ourselves—do our duty by the lawyer.

The career of the lawyer—the question whether he chooses the profession merely as the road to wealth and power, which in this country it certainly is, or as a career in which professional motives and a desire to serve the state shall play a great part—depends far more on what the state, of which Mr. Hoar confesses himself to be no small part, makes of the career. The road, whatever it is, as Burke said, will be trod, and the great question is, what sort of a road do we make of it? Is it such that the young man of high aims and generous ambitions finds that to get business he must make himself thoroughly competent to advise clients, or is he continually exposed to be driven out of the field by ignorant and unprincipled rivals whom the state encourages by a lax system of admission or discipline to compete with him, and who eat up his business by resorting to arts which he will not practise? Does he practise before judges who, from what we know of them, are sometimes far more inclined to encourage the noisy, pushing "shyster" than they are to listen to himself? Does he ever have to try to get the ear of judges when they are listening to those who, as the judges know only too well, have got them upon the bench, and may or may not keep them there? Does he find that his "chambers" business goes forward smoothly according as he makes presents to this or that underling (also an officer of state)? Finally, if his talents and ambition lead him to dream of a seat on the bench, and fit him for it, will the state single him out for this distinction, or will it tell him plainly that for rewards such as these he must look to a nominating convention, where it can be had only for money or favor; or, if it be in the service of the general Government, to the favor of low placemen near the President?

Go over the list of first-rate men nominated to the Supreme Bench in recent years on their merits and rejected, and put on the other side the nominations of second-rate men easily confirmed as a matter of favor through their very obscurity, and consider how full of warning to the young lawyer such a record is. The crying need of the hour in this matter is less to moralize over what no one disputes, than to do what we can to make the professional road somewhat different from what it is, and better. Throughout Mr. Hoar's address there runs the fallacy of an attempt to persuade his audience to respect the great authority of the courts, not merely on the ground that they are powerful, and that the part they play in the government is of the first rank, but because the profession is a sort of ideal governing body. The path to professional and political distinction must be considerably improved by us before we can expect to see any such bar as that to which Mr. Hoar likes to imagine himself as belonging.

RAILROAD IMPROVEMENT.

The publication of the plan of reorganization of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad has again drawn attention to the improved situation of railroad property. It is the latest of a great series of reorganizations since the panic of 1893, which have put tens of thousands of

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railway mileage in such a position that no further trouble on any large scale need be expected for a generation. Indeed, accompanied as these have been by a vast refunding of bonded indebtedness at 4 per cent. and less, and by the general establishment of a system of published accounts of earnings, and by conservatism and honesty of management, it is not too much to say that a memorable revolution has been accomplished in what is, next to agriculture, the most important single industry in the country, promising a future which twenty-five years ago no one dreamed of seeing attained within the limits of the century.

Perhaps no better signal of the change could have been given than the announcement that the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was at last on its feet, for this company had been an "awful example" of the old régime for years. The system had been brought into existence in the way once so common, by adding road after road to an originally valuable and small line; an era of wild speculation had followed, then a period of ruinous debts to prop up the inflated monstrosity, then collapse, carrying down with it thousands of innocent people and the railway genius who was mainly responsible for the disaster. It is, we believe, the only railroad in the United States which in the space of a few short years before its fall stood so firm as to be the main source of the income of a university, while its subsequent history was so productive of scandal, doubt, and dismay that even an honest receivership seemed to afford little hope of relief. At one period of its checkered career, it is said to have been the cause of one of the most thoroughly circulated *mots* of the late Mr. Travers, who, on being asked what he thought of some railroad's method of bookkeeping, said that he did not like it, as "they kept their books with a lead pencil and an eraser." The reorganization of this property after the ruin it has spread abroad, on terms which satisfy "all interests," is as welcome as rain after a devastating drought, or a good crop after two or three bad harvests. It is a wonderful transformation scene, from bankruptcy to solvency, from perpetual quarrels to peace; from a gross scandal which frightened capital away, to honest administration which summons it back. It is a case typical of the present railroad era.

No doubt the immediate cause of the great change in the condition of railway property was the fall in the rate of interest to a point at which inflated indebtedness could be scaled down without injury, nay, even with advantage, to the creditor. It is obvious that the holder of a 5 or 6 per cent. bond coming due within a few years, and who, if he were paid off, would find it difficult to reinvest at 4, is all the better off if he gets for his old and doubtful, or more than doubtful, bond a new sound 4 per cent. bond, to run, perhaps, for fifty years, within which time the rate of interest will undoubtedly fall still further. But the difference on its bonded indebtedness between 4 and 5 or 6 per cent. means in the case of many a railroad the difference between solvency and insolvency. It is this circumstance which has made most of the late reorganizations successful. Twenty-five or even fifteen years ago this means of extrication from difficulties had not made itself apparent, and hence very often a railroad, after being ruined by one set of managers, was turned over to a new set, as reorganized, only to be ruined by them in turn. But now reorganizations, which in almost every case are based on an estimate of earnings made in the worst possible times, are made "to last."

In addition to these material considerations, which naturally attract most attention, there is at least one moral cause which now tends to strengthen the security of railway property. We refer to the attitude of the courts towards both bond and stock-holders. Without going back to the days when Barnard and Cardozo were on the bench, it is not long since there was a tendency in the courts towards what has been denounced as the "town meeting" theory of railway securities—in other words, to the theory that the law must carry out any scheme, however inequitable or even iniquitous, which the majority sanctioned. This theory, had it been developed by the courts, would have been a frightful engine of fraud. By obtaining control of an issue of stock or bonds at a comparatively low figure, a speculator would be enabled to use it for purposes of reorganization or consolidation on any terms satisfactory to himself, even though the rights of the minority holders were destroyed. The theory at one time obtained such currency outside the courts that it was no uncommon thing to hear of schemes to "get hold" of a certain security with the almost avowed intention of sacrificing the minority interests. But of late years the decisions of the courts have tended to explode this doctrine, the view taken by them being that the ownership of stock or bonds raises for many purposes a common interest, and that the minority rights must be protected by the law, if the majority attempt so to use their own as to injure them. The authorities on this subject have recently been reviewed in a very important case by the highest court in this State, and the principle applied that one corporation cannot acquire the majority of the stock of another, and then so control and manage its business, for the purposes of getting hold of it at less than its value, as to injure the minority stockholders (Farmers' L. & T. Co. vs. New York & Northern Railway Co., 150 N. Y., 410). Decisions such as this have done much to diminish the temptations once presented by the operation known as "freezing out." The reader will, no doubt, recall one or two very recent instances in which a minority has invoked this principle with success. Nothing can exaggerate its importance, and it tends necessarily to compel the reorganization of properties on just terms to all concerned.

THE LATE SESSION OF THE JAPANESE PARLIAMENT.

TOKYO, June 16, 1898.

It is a general supposition of outsiders in Japan that the Government and leading party politicians have a pretty clear understanding beforehand of the probable trend of Parliamentary tactics in the Lower House; but, in the special session just brought to a summary dissolution, all the political leaders seem to have lost their bearings. Even within a few hours of the dissolution, it was believed by well-informed Japanese that the session would be brought to a satisfactory close. The Government acted throughout as though it had reserves at command to influence the votes of the members. It had everything at stake in the measures it had laid before the Lower House. The final *coup* of the Government ending in a dissolution was, therefore, in the nature of a blow to all the parties and to the public as well.

The greater part of the month of April was occupied with incessant attempts to bring about an alliance between the Ito Cabinet and the Liberals. The National Unionists, who mustered only about twenty-five votes, were with the Government from the start. For a time there seemed to be a strong probability that the Liberals would support the Cabinet in the coming session. The Liberal press in Tokyo advocated such a movement, and their leader, Count Itagaki, was friendly to it. The conditions of this support were supposed to be that the Government would admit Count Itagaki to a Cabinet portfolio, and certain other Liberals to important administrative posts. The success of the attempt seemed to depend, so far as the Liberals were concerned, upon the moderation of their claim for recognition, and their united support of the measures which the Government wished to lay before the Parliament. The Cabinet undoubtedly desired an alliance with the Liberal party even though the votes of the latter, together with those of the Unionists, did not furnish the requisite majority. A fair number of independents could without much effort have been secured to unite with the two parties, if only the latter were in the mood to stand firmly together.

These negotiations, continuing so many days and even weeks, between the Liberals and the Cabinet, suddenly came to an abrupt conclusion. The alliance was not to be. No explanation of the failure was given further than that Marquis Ito could not see his way to accept the Liberal demands. What these demands were was not definitely made known at the time. It has since leaked out, however, that the Liberals were not able to offer much in the way of united support. Ever since the early session of last year all the parties in Japan have been on the verge of disintegration. The larger parties have been

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split up into wings and coteries, and many small political clubs have been organized by the seceders from the larger groups. This factional spirit has so affected the Liberals that they can scarcely be considered a political body in the proper sense of the term. There are sections that have threatened to secede at every important crisis. In the negotiations with the Ito Cabinet it is probable that the party leaders were unable to guarantee the united support of their party to the Government, especially when they learned that they were expected to vote for bills that were obnoxious to certain members of the party. The result of this rupture was that Marquis Ito and his associates were left without a definite following in the Lower House, unless we count the rather insignificant support of the National Unionists.

The special session of Parliament was formally opened on the 19th of May, and was to continue its deliberations for twenty days. In this brief period the Cabinet required the Parliament to act upon three measures of the greatest importance, besides several bills of lesser importance. The determination of the Cabinet to limit the consideration of the bills to but twenty days was its first mistake. In no session have measures of a more far-reaching character been laid before the Lower House. The deliberations of the Representatives have in certain sessions, especially the memorable one of a year ago, amounted to little more than a vote of confirmation of the bills introduced by the Government. But the Cabinet could hardly expect this docility from the members under existing circumstances when it did not command a definite party following. In these few days the houses were expected to vote upon the enforcement of the Civil Code, three bills for increasing taxation to the extent of 35,000,000 yen, and a bill radically changing the mode of national elections. In addition to these major bills, there were minor bills requiring no little consideration, besides others which certain parties had pledged themselves to work for. The limited time allotted for all this gave offence to the Representatives, but it was in one sense an advantage to them, for the reason that it placed the Government, anxious to secure immediate action, to some extent within their power.

When the session opened there was at first no evidence that the proceedings would be hostile to the Government. There was, indeed, a party of extremists, composed mainly of Satsuma members, who used every means within their power to bring the Lower House to a vote of want of confidence in the Cabinet. But the motives of this clique were too transparent. The preponderating powers behind the throne, the Satsuma and Choshu clans, have not been friendly to each other since the fall of the Matsukata Cabinet, which was of the Satsuma persuasion, and these members hoped to take advantage of the widespread dissatisfaction with the present Cabinet (of Choshu proclivities) to make a thrust at Count Ito. But the House would not be persuaded. The majority of the members were in no mood for petty revenge of this kind, and were waiting for larger game. Toward the middle of the session a representation to the throne was introduced which, in moderate language, censured the Government for its conduct of foreign affairs in the East. But this was voted down on the 30th of May by a majority of fifty-five—a majority so large that it would almost seem as though the Government had scored a victory. Yet even on this occasion the attitude of the House was negative toward the Cabinet. Throughout the session the support of the Government measures often trembled in the balance. On one occasion, when the Government declared urgency for the land-tax bill—a point of doubtful constitutionality—a storm of opposition was aroused, and the Government made haste to withdraw its condition.

It is unnecessary to describe in further detail the bills which the Government laid before the Lower House, vital though they are to the current history of Japan. With a single exception they failed to become laws, and will have to wait for the election of a new Parliament. The exception is the Civil Code, which was hurriedly passed in the Lower House and finally voted in the Upper House in the last moments of the session. The passing of this Code was a matter of peculiar necessity, entirely apart from internal political considerations, in both the legislative branches. It is provided in the new treaties, which are to give Japan full rights throughout her territories on an entire equality with other great Powers, that the law codes must be enforced at least one year before the treaties go into effect. Had the Civil Code failed to pass, the operation of the treaties would have been suspended for a time, and Japan would have been delayed in securing her complete autonomy through her own mismanagement. Happily for her, something at least was gained from this Parliament, the term of which proved otherwise so brief and futile.

It was evident from the first that the real crux of the session was to be the bill for increasing the land tax. This was one of the three measures for raising a larger revenue. The first and second, which had reference to an increase of the saké and income taxes respectively, were likely to meet with no particular opposition. The proposal for a new land tax was certain to encounter much hostile criticism. The present land tax is substantially based on the laws of 1873 and 1877. According to the first, the tax rate was 3 per cent. of an official valuation of the agricultural and urban lands of the country, and in the latter year this was reduced to 2½ per cent. In 1880 there was a revision of the land value, which for the most part holds good at the present time. This revision was intended to reform the inequalities of the older appraisements, but not to change the rate, which has remained at 2½ per cent. From this brief account it is evident that the amount of tax to be paid on each parcel of land was fixed, and that the proceeds of the tax, except for trifling variations, were a definite amount, independent of the size or price of the produce. The total receipts from this tax to the Treasury were about 42,500,000 yen from the years 1881 to 1889. In the latter year some reductions were made in certain provinces where land was appraised too high, and after these reductions the state realized about 38,000,000 yen from this source.

In the earlier sessions of Parliament, especially before the outbreak of the late war with China, the land tax was frequently attacked by the Lower House. One complaint was that the rate was too high and bore heavily on the farming class. But with the rise of price in agricultural products in recent years—a rise due mainly to the extension of manufactures and the rapid growth of an urban population—this objection fell to the ground. The inequality of the tax, however, in spite of various revisions, was still a bone of contention. There seems to be a prevalent opinion in the rural districts that some provinces do not pay their share, while others are overtaxed. It is not easy to decide how far this complaint is justified. On the whole, public opinion seems to back the farmers in their contention, but the general prosperity of the agricultural classes in Japan and the general increase of their standard of comfort would seem to indicate that, in recent years, they have adjusted themselves to this evil.

The various measures for increasing the revenue during the past few years have borne very little upon the farmers. As the Government, in this session, proposed to augment the saké tax and the income tax, both of which would fall largely upon the urban classes, it wished to equalize matters by increasing the land tax. The rate was raised from 2.5 per cent. to 3.7 per cent. on agricultural lands, to 3 per cent. on rural building lands, and 5 per cent. on urban building lands. As soon as the bill was laid before the Lower House the opposition to the measure began to manifest itself. Individual members representing rural communities were instructed by their constituents either to vote against the land-tax bill, or at least to demand a reassessment before consenting to any increase of the rate. As the agricultural interests really dominate the Lower House, the Government saw that the battle would be a severe one. The length of the session was manifestly too brief for a full consideration of the bill, and the Government endeavored to placate the Opposition by extending the session one week to June 15. On the 7th of June the special committee to whose hands the tax bill had been intrusted was ready to make its report. The chairman announced that, with one exception, all the members of the committee were opposed to the bill, and recommended its rejection. From this it required no great insight to predict an overwhelming defeat of the whole measure. But one resource was left to the Government, viz., to consent to a scheme of revising the land values, and thus to secure, if possible, a majority in favor of the tax bill.

To feel its way, the Government suspended the sitings of the Lower House for two days—an interval spent in active negotiations with certain independent members who were not averse to coming to an agreement with the Cabinet on liberal terms. Vague charges of underhand influence and even of bribery were made during this time against the Government, but it seems to have resorted to no other opodeldoc than consenting to the measure of reassessment on conditions practically dictated by the independents. The suspension was, however, altogether too limited to permit of any canvassing of opinions or of making converts among the members. When the House reassembled on the 10th, it is doubtful whether the Government or any of the members had any inkling of what the fate of the land tax would be. Both the friends and the enemies of the measure were in a state of complete uncertainty as to which party would triumph.

The question finally turned upon a technical point of constitutionality. It was an exciting moment. There was a full House, most of the Ministers of State were present,

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and the visitors' gallery was crowded. The regular order of business was the continuation of the debate on the land-tax bill, but one of the independents acting for the Government asked permission to introduce a representation for reassessing the value of land. The Constitution provides that if the debate upon any bill has begun, it cannot be interrupted by any other proposal, unless the connection between the two is so close as to make them practically one measure. After much confusion and excitement, the President decided that a closed ballot should be taken on the point whether the voting on the constitutionality of the representation should be done by a closed or an open ballot. The fate of the bill was understood to hinge on the outcome of this vote. The meaning of a closed ballot in the Japanese Parliament is that each voting paper is signed with the member's name, while an open ballot leaves the member to vote without signature and therefore without exposure of his decision. It was felt that the Government might have secured the adhesion of a certain number of trimmers who would be willing to vote for the representation and the tax bill, if only they were not found out. Hence the importance attached to the apparently technical point of a closed or open ballot. When the result was announced—164 for a closed, as against 124 for an open ballot—every one understood that the fate of the tax bill was sealed. The House defeated the motion for the introduction of the representation by the same majority. The debate on the tax bill was then resumed, but on the final vote only twenty-seven stood for it. The members were fully aware that the die was cast. The Cabinet allowed a brief interval to elapse in which some special bills were acted upon in the Upper House, but as soon as this was accomplished an imperial rescript was issued dissolving the Lower House.

However indefensible the action of the Representatives may be in opposing an increase of the land tax, there can be no doubt that resistance to the Government has strengthened the position of the political parties. The Japanese admire an action that shows strength of purpose under adversity. It required some degree of courage for the Representatives to face another dissolution. They had but just undergone the trouble and expense of an election, and they were all loath to encounter another. Probably nearly all of the members would have preferred to meet the Government half way, if they could have saved their reputations with their constituents. But they crossed the Rubicon fairly, and accepted the result without a murmur. The result is that the two largest political parties have already won back much of the ground they lost in the disgraceful session of last year. They seem to have recovered backbone. Never have the Jiyuto and Shimpoto been so jubilant as since the dissolution. They are making every effort to consummate what has heretofore invariably failed, namely, the union of the two parties into one effective political organization, and if the entire press of the country is any indication of party opinion in Japan, the plan is likely to be carried into effect. G. D.

ARNOLD BÖCKLIN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., July 8, 1898.

It is surprising how indifferent the majority of American art students and cultivated Americans in general are towards whatever Germany has accomplished in the fine arts. While the Gothic architecture of France and England, Italian painting and sculpture of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, the Renaissance architecture of Italy and France, and modern French and English painting have engaged both the careful attention of specialists and the devoted interest of the wider circle of art-lovers, it would be in vain to search among us for a single prominent advocate or exponent of German achievements in these three sister arts. Where is there in this country an opportunity to study adequately the wonderful development of German church-building during the Romanesque period? How much is known, even by professional art critics, of the superb thirteenth-century sculptures, in Naumburg, Wechselburg, Bamberg, or Freiburg; how much of the extraordinary wood-carvings of the fifteenth century, such as the altar-works of Michael Pacher and Hans Brüggemann? What American contribution has there been made—if we except the admirable work done by S. R. Koehler—towards a fuller knowledge even of such men as Dürer and Holbein? And how many Americans are there to whom the names of Karl Rottmann, Ludwig Richter, Moritz von Schwind, and Anselm Feuerbach are more than mere names?

It looks as though the same fate was about to overtake the life-work of Arnold Böcklin; and yet it is safe to say not only that the paintings of Böcklin are filling the imagination of cultivated Germans of the present day to a degree rarely equalled by artists of former ages, but that they are entitled to the earnest consideration of all those—whether they be Europeans or Americans—to whom art is still a chosen interpreter of the deepest mysteries of life.

There is probably no artist of modern times in whom elemental instinct has burst forth with such tempestuous power as in Böcklin. There may be painters who, like Turner, surpass him in glow and brilliancy of color; others, such as Puvis de Chavannes, may be his superiors in delicacy of tint and outline; still others, as for instance Verestchagin, may have a surer grasp in reproducing actual happening, but not since the days of the Renaissance has there been his like in exultant sense of creative vitality. Most artists are copyists. They merely tell, in one way or another, what they find in real life; they derive all their conceptions from what they see or hear. Only the greatest create their own world. It is to these that Böcklin belongs. Whether we like his conceptions or not, it would never occur to us to deny them their right of existence, as little as we should think of disputing the legitimacy of the manifold forms and types of Nature herself. This alone would be sufficient to give Böcklin a place among the chosen few. What gives him an added significance for our own time, what makes him a representative of modern life, is that he, more intensely than any other artist, seems to have felt in himself the two contrasting passions of the modern world: its feverish striving, its indomitable thirst for boundless activity, and, at the same time, its deep, inarticulate craving for spiritual peace.

Perhaps the most striking example of the Titanic impetuosity of Böcklin's art is his "Prometheus." Not even the masters of the frieze of Pergamon entered more fully into the spirit of fierce revolt that characterizes the ancient story of the fight of the giants against the gods. But to this spirit of defiance there is added in Böcklin a sublime touch of mysticism. This colossal but shadowy figure that we see chained to the summit of the mountain, stretching out over its whole ridge, half mingling with the clouds that surround it, we feel to be a part of the universal yearning and struggling of creation for a higher existence. Indeed, it seems as though dumb nature had found a voice in this suffering man. He, rather than the rocks upon which he lies, seems to form the real summit of the mountain; and as we see the waves of purple Okeanos dashing against its base, as we see the forests on its slope bending down before the raging gale, we cannot help imagining that all this together—sea, rocks, forests, clouds, and man—is one gigantic being, throbbing with passionate life, brimming over, even in defeat, with indomitable energy and desire. How insipid and sentimental do most of the modern representations of Prometheus appear by the side of this truly Æschylean conception!

It is, however, not only in such intrinsically heroic situations that Böcklin's extraordinary sense for the elemental forces of nature and their restless weaving and working asserts itself. Indeed, one might describe most of his pictures as illustrations to the words of the *Earth-Spirit* in "Faust":

> "In Lebensfluten, im Thatensturm
> Wall ich auf und ab,
> Wehe hin und her.
> Geburt und Grab,
> Ein ewiges Meer,
> Ein wechselnd Weben,
> Ein glühend Leben—
> So schaff ich am sausenden Webstuhl der Zeit
> Und wirke der Gottheit lebendiges Kleid."

Or rather, most of his paintings seem to quiver with that intense, eager, ceaseless emotion by which such an activity as the *Earth-Spirit's* must be accompanied.

What an irrepressible animal exuberance, for instance, breathes in his pictures of the sea. To him every wave is a living being. As they dance and glitter in the sunshine, as they roll and heave in the storm, as they break over each other and spread into foamy whirls, as they glide gently upon the sand, every one of them seems to feel, to sing, to wail, to long, or to rejoice. And at the same time the sea as a whole seems to be a huge, many-headed, mysterious monster, of insatiable appetites, of unfathomable power, and of endlessly changing forms. So that we are not in the least surprised to see all sorts of fantastic shapes and faces, mermaids, sea-dragons, centaurs, and fabulous serpents, lurking in the water and on the shore, riding on the crests of waves or diving into the deep.

One of these pictures shows a valley between two gigantic rollers, evidently in mid-ocean; no distant view; nothing but this enormous mass of surging water. But on the top of one of the waves there comes riding along a shaggy ocean monster, a fat, brown, rollicking, sea-captain-like fellow, and his sudden appearance frightens some mermaids that are sporting below, so that they plunge headforemost into the protecting element. Another picture shows the breakers dashing over some barren rocks in the sea; on one of the rocks there sits a grizzly Triton blowing lustily into a tortuous shell which serves him for a trumpet; at his side, stretched out on her back, there

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lies a naked woman, letting the waves wash over her voluptuously, one of her hands lazily bent backward to her neck, the other playing with a gorgeous snake that has raised its luring head and part of its glittering body from under the water. In still another picture of this kind we see the towering cliffs of a desolate coast; the surf is just receding, in rapid eddies, through the crevices of the rocks and boulders. In the middle of the cliffs there is a cavern-like chasm, and here there stands, leaning against the bare wall, a strange, superhumanly beautiful woman, her dark hair flowing upon her shining shoulders, her eye rapturously following the receding floods, while at the same time she drinks in the sound of an Æolian harp that is suspended at the opening of the ravine.

In all this, what a wonderful fascination, what an irresistible passion, what a glowing, daring, bewildering life! Is it a wonder that Böcklin touches the heart of modern men? Is not this the way in which modern men live—feverishly working, feverishly enjoying, crowding eternities into a brief, hasty moment? Is not this an age of giants and of demigods? And do we not even in nature see our own selves, do we not even from nature derive excitement and intensified energy rather than edification and calm? I believe that, in spite of the classical form of many of his conceptions, there is, in this respect at least, no more intensely modern artist than Böcklin.

Herman Grimm, to whom we owe an admirable analysis of Böcklin's character, finds in him a lack of spirituality. He notices an underlying sadness in his work, and thinks its effect disquieting rather than uplifting. That here a real limitation of Böcklin's genius is touched upon is made perfectly apparent if we compare his sensuous and decidedly earthy creations with the soaring conceptions of a man with whom in artistic power he has a good deal in common: the unswerving idealist Watts. And yet I cannot help thinking that, if Böcklin lacks spirituality, he certainly does not lack the desire for spirituality. No man could have created such works as "The Silence of the Forest," or "The Palace by the Sea," or "The Playing Hermit" who had not a deep-rooted craving for redemption from this busy show world, who did not feel the awe of the infinite. And does there exist a more perfect symbol of the longing of modern humanity for transfiguration and peace than Böcklin's "Isle of the Dead"? Again we are in the middle of the sea. Out of the endless glassy calm there rises a rocky island. It seems a burnt-out volcano; on its sides we see, hewn into the rock, openings that remind one of the Christian catacombs. Waterfalls float like veils over the surface of the rocks and lose themselves gently in the sea. In the middle of the island there is a labyrinth of cypresses. Their tops rise above the surrounding cliffs and are being lashed by a storm that sweeps along in the higher regions. But in the forest itself there reigns absolute stillness and a mysterious dusk. In the foreground, on the water, there drifts a boat towards the island —no sail, no rudder, no oarsmen; a figure, shrouded in a white garment, stands in it, erect, but with bowed head. Soon it will have reached its goal. KUNO FRANCKE.

VOLTAIRE AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.—II.

PARIS, June 30, 1898.

We left Voltaire at the height of his favor at the court of Frederick. This favor was not to be of long duration; in two years the days of royal intimacy and friendship came to an end. Voltaire did not allow his royal friend to domesticate him, as he had done with so many strangers—Italians, Frenchmen, Englishmen, Germans, who had left their respective countries; but we must render this justice to Frederick: he was not the first offender in the quarrel which he had with Voltaire. One of the traits of the great writer was his avarice and an inordinate preoccupation with his financial interests. This induced him to buy for a large sum some bonds of Augustus, the Elector of Saxony. In the last treaty which Frederick imposed on his Saxon neighbor, he promised to redeem these bonds at par, though they had fallen considerably below their par value. He forbade speculation in these bonds, but Voltaire contrived to get some by the help of a Jew. Frederick was very angry when he heard of this transaction, and, for a time, Voltaire, though he still lived in the palace in Berlin, could not show himself at Potsdam. Voltaire had some difficulties with the Jew who had been his broker, and Frederick wrote to his sister, the Margravine of Bayreuth: "You ask me what is this lawsuit of Voltaire's with a Jew. It is the affair of a filcher *(fripon)* trying to cheat a petty thief *(filou)*."

Louis XV. was much amused with this adventure. Frederick, when judgment was given, wrote to Voltaire: "I was happy to receive you, as I value your wit, your talent, your knowledge; and I believed that a man of your years, tired of quarrelling with writers and with living a stormy life, came here as to a port of refuge. . . . But you made for yourself a very disagreeable affair with this Jew." Voltaire wrote back: "I have gained my unfortunate lawsuit, and, after having gained it, I have given this Jew more than I first offered him. This does not hinder me from consecrating my life to you; do with me what you like. . . . I have displeased the only man whom I cared to please. If the Queen of Sheba had fallen in disgrace with Solomon, she would not have suffered more than I do." Pardon was granted, in rather contemptuous words: "If you wish to return here [to Potsdam], you can do so. We don't talk here of trials, not even of yours. Since you have won it, I congratulate you, and I am glad that the affair is over. I hope you won't quarrel any more, either with the Old or with the New Testament."

Confidence was gone, and the peace was only an armistice. Friendship requires some equality, and Frederick could not forget at times that he was the King. Moreover, Voltaire was generally in the wrong. Among the members of the Academy of Berlin was a certain German mathematician named Koenig, who was librarian to the Princess of Orange at The Hague. Voltaire took his part in a quarrel which Koenig had with Maupertuis; he wrote an anonymous pamphlet, in which he represented the Academy of Berlin, which pretended to be an asylum of free thought, as subject to a real tyranny. With the help of Maupertuis, the King composed an answer to this pamphlet; it was published with the eagle, the crown, and the sceptre on the title-page. "If truth," wrote Voltaire to his niece, "must fly away from a throne, it is especially when a king turns author. Coquettes, kings, and poets are accustomed to flattery. Frederick unites the three crowns." The relations between Voltaire and the King became very uncomfortable. Baron Scheffer, the Swedish Minister, wrote to Madame du Deffand (December 15, 1752): "I saw Voltaire at Potsdam, and I can assure you that his lot is anything but enviable. He spends the whole day alone in his room, not from choice, but from necessity. He then takes supper with the King, also from necessity rather than from choice. He feels that he is there somewhat like the singers of the Opera in Paris, when good society admitted them only to sing at table. If I am not mistaken, he will not long endure the tedium of his position."

Meanwhile, Voltaire was taking measures for investing his fortune at Montbéliard (then a posession of the Duke of Würtemberg). He was biding his time, but lost patience when Maupertuis published a work full of hazardous suppositions regarding science. Voltaire tore it to bits in a pamphlet called 'Diatribe of Doctor Akakia, Physician to the Pope.' The King became furious, and wrote to Voltaire: "Your effrontery surprises me, after what you have just done, and which is as clear as the day. You persist in denying, instead of confessing yourself guilty; don't imagine that you will make me believe that black is white." The whole edition was seized, and Voltaire had to subscribe the following pledge (the original still exists in the archives of Berlin): "I promise your Majesty that as long as your Majesty does me the favor of lodging me in the château, I will write against nobody, neither against the Government of France, nor against the ministers or other sovereigns, nor against illustrious men of letters. I will not make use of his Majesty's correspondence, and I will conduct myself in a manner suitable to a man of letters who has the honor of being a chamberlain of his Majesty." Voltaire avenged himself by writing at the same moment to his niece: "I am going to make for my own instruction a little dictionary for the use of kings: *My friend* signifies *my slave; my dear friend* signifies *you are now indifferent to me;* by *I will make you happy* you must understand *I will put up with you as long as I have need of you. Take supper with me to-night* means *I will laugh at you to-night.* This dictionary might be very bulky, . . . and think that I have called him the Solomon of the North. Well! we are not philosophers, neither he nor I!" This duel could not be very long. Voltaire made a pretext of his health, and asked permission to take the waters at Plombières, in the Vosges. The King wished him to go to Glatz in Silesia. Finally Voltaire lost his patience, packed his trunks, and left in a chaise, drawn by six horses, and crossed the frontier, with his books, his secretaries, and his papers.

He remained a few weeks in Leipzig, believing himself safe on Saxon ground. He announced his intention of making a visit to the Margravine at Bayreuth; and Frederick, on hearing of it, wrote to his sister: "I should not be sorry if he went to Bayreuth, because, if you consent to it, I would send somebody there to ask of him the chamberlain's key and the decoration which he still has, and especially an edition of my verses which he sent to Frankfort

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and which I will absolutely not leave with him, as he might make a bad use of it. As for you, my dear sister, I advise you not to write to him with your own hand; he is the most treacherous rascal on earth." The Margravine succeeded in avoiding the visit, and Voltaire took the road to Frankfort. The story of his arrest and the arrest of his niece there is well known; it has been the subject of much discussion; new documents on the subject have been published lately. Frederick was particularly anxious to take his verses out of Voltaire's hands, and, in order to satisfy him, the Prussian Resident in the free town of Frankfort showed an energy which bordered on brutality. In his report, he tells that he did not hesitate to arrest the niece of Voltaire, that "insolent *Weibmensch*," who was capable of going to intercede with the Town Council and thus "unsern Handel zu verderben." Voltaire was treated almost like a criminal; he protested in vain, wrote a letter to Francis I., the husband of Maria Theresa, begging him to protect him and to defend his right in an imperial city. He offered in his letter to go to Vienna, in order to confer with "their Sacred Majesties the Emperor and Empress on matters which concerned them"; and the Duke de Broglie asks what these matters might have been.

Frederick, after a while, sent an order for the release of Voltaire, who, after spending a few days at Mannheim, with the Elector Palatine, went to Strasbourg. He remained some time in Alsace, as Mme. de Pompadour sent him word that the King of France did not wish to have him in his neighborhood. He had now fallen from grace with two sovereigns. From Strasbourg he went to Colmar, spent some time in a convent of Benedictines near Senones, with the learned Dom Calmet, apparently to seek documents for a great work in preparation, the 'Essai sur les Mœurs.' He had just finished his 'History of the Age of Louis XIV.,' but his apotheosis of the great king did not make him *persona grata* with Louis XV. He paid a visit to Lyons, and had a reception from the Academy, but he was very coldly received there by the Archbishop, the Cardinal de Tencin, whom he had known at his sister's house in Paris. "This country," said he, on leaving the palace of the Archbishop, who was one of the correspondents of Louis XV., "is not made for me." He never did anything wiser than when he decided to remain in Switzerland, where he went first to consult the famous physician Tronchin. He bought a domain near Geneva, which he christened the "Délices." He composed there his famous invocation to Liberty, the best of his poetical pieces.

"La Liberté! j'ai vu cette déesse altière,
Avec égalité répandant tous ses biens,
Descendre de Morat, en habit de guerrière,
Les mains teintes du sang des fiers Autrichiens
Et de Charlès le Téméraire.
. . . . . .
Liberté! Liberté! ton trône est en ces lieux."

He was hardly settled in Switzerland when he heard great news; war had been declared between France and England. Great Britain had assured herself of the neutrality of Prussia and thus protected her interests on the Continent; a close alliance between France and Austria had been substituted for their ancient traditional hostility. In the 'Memoirs of My Life' Voltaire speaks lightly and disdainfully of the treaty of 1756; he attributes the great political revolution which united France and Austria to the offended vanity of Madame de Pompadour and of the Abbé de Bernis; he tells us that in the volume of Frederick's verse which was torn from him at Frankfort, there was this line:

"Évitez de Bernis la stérile abondance."

The anger of the poet Bernis, when he read this line, was no more the origin of the treaty of 1756 than was the famous letter of Maria Theresa to her dear friend Madame de Pompadour, a letter which nobody ever saw, and of which every historian for a century past has spoken. The Duke de Broglie shows how often history is made without any serious documents.

"Recent events," he says, "which have cost France so much, and which have renovated Europe, were perhaps necessary to make us understand that the authors of the treaty of 1756, in opposing the growing power of Prussia, had a just prevision of the dangers of the future, and that their policy differed more in appearance than in reality from the policy of Henri IV. and of Richelieu, since for them, as for their great masters, the question was to hinder a single Power, be its name Austria or Prussia, from growing at our own door to a point at which it could exercise an uncontrolled authority over the vast Germanic continent."

Voltaire wrote a complimentary, even an enthusiastic, letter to a friend of Madame de Pompadour, when he heard of the treaty. We read in it: "I sometimes receive letters from Vienna: the Queen of Hungary is adored. It was just that the *bien-aimé* and the *bien-aimée* should be friends"; and he wrote to Paris-Duverney, the famous financier who was a protégé of Madame de Pompadour: "The union of the houses of France and of Austria after 150 years of enmity; England, which thought she held the balance of power in Europe, confounded in six months, . . . make a splendid tableau. . . . If it goes on, I shall regret being no longer the historiographer of France; but France, who will never be wanting in statesmen and warriors, will also always have writers worthy of celebrating this country."

Correspondence.

THE ANGLO-SAXON UNDERSTANDING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will some of you people who live near the seashore kindly tell us down here in "the provinces" what has become of the "English octopus"? He has entirely disappeared from this section, where, being somewhat amphibious, he was formerly wont to disport himself as vigorously as in Congressman Finerty's district in Chicago itself. His pictures stared at us as full-page "features" of the Bryan literature in 1896—tentacles, eyes, cavernous mouth, and all—the "great bloodsucker of the nations." But suddenly, "abiit, erumpit, evasit!" We are now being gravely told that we, too, speak the tongue that Shakspere spoke, that John signed the Charter for us, too; that the Grand Remonstrance and "Cromwell's Deed" and the Bill of Rights and all such things are parts of our heritage, for "blood is thicker than water."

To those of us who have heard the "octopus" side of the question so vigorously declaimed these many years, this change not only is amusing, but is a great relief as well. If he should be located, "hidden out," in Greater New York, please advise us.

Flournoy Rivers.

Pulaski, Tenn., July 8, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The emotionalism at present existing between John and Jonathan (which in any race but the Anglo-Saxon might be carried to an hysterical excess) is but an ill-expressed desire to acknowledge the sterling worth of the men of our race. War, with its horrors and wickedness, possesses the cursed virtue of calling the attention of all to our noble traits of endurance and perseverance—traits shown as markedly by the men as by the officers. John cannot but admire, in his cousin, the virtues he himself possesses, and of which he is both proud and thankful. He desires to show it, and Jonathan must render appreciation in return.

England will soon have a celebration in honor of her great Alfred. Probably it would please her national heart to have us as participants if not as co-assistants. Cannot American ingenuity find some way of expressing our good will, and at the same time showing our recognition of the greatness of that ruler? Or, perhaps still better, could we not place in our own land, on shaft or memorial tablet, our acknowledgment of the noble aims of the Anglo-Saxon race—aims which history permits to be represented in the person of Alfred the Great?

Non-Jingo.

Charlestown, W. Va., July 9, 1898.

Notes.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'The Spanish Revolution, 1868-1875,' by Edward Henry Strobel.

D. B. Updike, Boston, will put the imprint of his Merrymount Press on a Diary (1743-1751) of the Rev. James MacSparran, one of the earliest rectors of old St. Paul's, Narragansett.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will publish 'Sister Evangeline,' a Nova Scotian romance by C. G. D. Roberts, together with 'New York Nocturnes, and Other Poems,' by the same writer; 'By the Aurelian Well, and Other Elegies,' by Bliss Carman; 'Ye Lyttle Salem Maide,' a study of witchcraft, by Pauline Bradford Mackie; and 'Wall Street and the Nation: Finance and Politics,' by Henry Clews.

Seignobos's 'Political History of Modern Europe,' translated by Prof. S. M. Macvane of Harvard University, is to be issued by Henry Holt & Co.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. will have ready in the fall the complete poems of Richard Realf, edited with a memoir by Col. Richard J. Hinton. The book will contain five portraits and other illustrations.

A new importing and publishing firm has been established in this city by Mr. William B. Hadley, lately President of the New Amsterdam Book Co., and Mr. E. Roscoe Mathews, hitherto connected with Messrs. Scribner.

An important 'History of the Art of War,' by Charles Oman, Fellow of All Souls, Oxford, makes a beginning in a volume of nearly seven hundred pages on the period from the fourth to the fourteenth century, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. A volume on the earlier period of classical antiquity, though first in historical order, will appear later. Two others will bring the history down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The present volume is il-

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lustrated by twenty-four maps, battle-plans, drawings of armor, etc., and the author makes full references to the authorities and sources he has used. He is no mere compiler or translator, but handles his subject like one familiar with modern military ideas and history, and with the reasons for the changes in arms, in tactics, and in discipline which have occurred in different periods. In this volume he develops in an interesting way the transition from the Roman infantry legion to the Gothic cavalry corps, with the causes and the very important consequences of the change. The periods of Charlemagne, of the Byzantine Empire, of the Crusades, the rise and development of the use of the long-bow, and the progress of siege-craft and fortification, are all consecutively treated in a clear and instructive manner.

Mr. Ernest Law's catalogue of 'The Royal Gallery of Hampton Court,' which is published in a thick and handsome octavo volume by George Bell & Sons, London (New York: Macmillan), is a useful piece of work well done. No pains seems to have been spared to make it "up to date" in the matter of attributions and of biographical and critical notes. There is much entertaining matter in these notes, and though a work of reference the book is far from dry reading. It is illustrated with a hundred well-chosen and well-executed plates, two of them being photogravures. One of these two is of Cariani's "Venus Recumbent," which does not appear in the catalogue, as, for some reason, it is not exhibited. The last number entered in the catalogue is 942, while the number of this "recently discovered" Venus is 1103, so that there would seem to be some one hundred and sixty unexhibited pictures in the collection. The Venus is apparently a very beautiful and interesting work. How many of the hundred and sixty are worth exhibiting? The list of Registry Numbers, by the way, shows 1,140 pictures, but thirty-three of these are accounted for by the cataloguing of several pictures under one number, as in the case of Mantegna's "Triumph of Julius Cæsar."

We cannot give much praise to 'Heirlooms in Miniature,' by Anne Hollingsworth Wharton (J. B. Lippincott Co.). Its texture is slight and of the magazine-article order, and while it contains a good deal of old gossip that might be amusing, it somehow fails to be readable. The chapter on "Miniature Painting as an Art" contains little that is important, unless certain recipes for "flesh-color," etc., should be so considered. The many illustrations indicate that little of real artistic merit has been produced by the earlier miniaturists of this country.

It is difficult to appraise fairly the value of Mr. J. C. Van Dyke's 'Nature for its Own Sake' (Scribners). The author's purpose has been "to call attention to that nature around us which only too many people look at every day and yet never see," and this purpose the book may probably serve; but those who have both looked and seen—those who are trained observers of nature's appearances—will be apt to think the doctrine rather elementary. It is true as far as it goes, but it does not go very far, and the author seems always to stop on the verge of some really acute piece of observation or analysis. This, however, is recognized by the author himself in his sub-title ("First Studies in Natural Appearances"), and in his statement that "the book is designed as an introduction to a subject which I hope to consider more fully hereafter." How far will what he has here written prove novel, stimulating, or illuminating to the average cultivated person of literary tastes and some love for nature? That is a question which the painter or the careful student of nature finds it hard to answer. It is well-nigh impossible for such an one to put himself in the place of the looker who does not see, or to remember how little he once saw himself—to realize that the commonplaces of the landscape painter are the mysteries or the paradoxes of the public. Mr. Van Dyke has seen nature in many lands and under many conditions, and has brought to the investigation of its appearances eyes sharpened by the long study of pictures. He writes clearly and simply, and indulges in little rhetoric or false sentiment. His "first studies," therefore, will probably reveal to many people many things of which they were unaware, and will perhaps be of more service than would a book made up of subtler and rarer observations.

One of the cleverest skits picturing the Russo-Chino-Japanese situation is Mr. J. Morris's lively book, just out in London (Lawrence & Bullen), entitled 'What Will Japan Do? A Forecast.' In the general style of the 'Battle of Dorking,' it is very valuable, from the author's thorough knowledge of the military geography of the countries interested, and of modern naval capabilities and limitations. Formerly connected with the Public Works service in Tokio, Mr. Morris proved his grasp of the situation in 'Advance Japan,' published in 1895. He shows the Japanese able to cope with the Russians by their superior naval training and mastery of modern problems, holding their own in Korea, and following the example of Great Britain in generous treatment of China and in commercial liberality at newly opened ports. He believes heartily in the efficacy of the torpedo-boat. On good grounds he feels assured of Japan's solvency, steady increase of power and prosperity, and close union in ideas and sympathies with the English-speaking nations. He has written an able book.

The prime object of Andrew Lang's 'Book of Dreams and Ghosts,' of which a new edition is published by Longmans, Green & Co., is to entertain those who are interested in those topics. But interest in such things implies, at least in our days, a desire to form a general opinion about them. Indeed, the amusement consists in the logical exercise, while the deeper interest lies in concern about a future life. With great skill the author aids the formation of an opinion by simply selecting some eighty of the best attested marvels, and arranging them in classes in the order of their increasing marvellousness. Thus, having succeeded in swallowing one set of stories, the reader is immediately offered another, just a little more difficult, and so on, until he somewhere draws a line. This method results in a work really valuable from a scientific point of view. It is not merely in the exacter sciences, such as astronomy and chemistry, that selections of typical facts, as opposed to original observations on the one hand and to digests on the other, are needed for inductive operations. Even in an inquiry so imperfectly organized as is at present psychical research, a book like this of instances better sifted than those in any great collection can for the most part be is almost indispensable. The verdict of good sense seems, as far as we have been able to collect competent opinions, still to be, on the whole, somewhat against telepathy—not altogether as an abstract proposition, but as an explanation of floating stories. The circumstance that the theory has not yet resulted in the production of any new kinds of phenomena, lends support to that verdict. The dress of Mr. Lang's collection is altogether agreeable.

It is a little strange that, after a generation of celebrity, Reye's 'Geometrie der Lage' should now be translated into English for the first time. Part I. comes to us from the Macmillan Co., Prof. Holgate of Evanston being the highly competent translator. The original has long been used in some of our American universities to great advantage. In certain respects it is a more brilliant book even than the treatise of Cremona, and it covers a somewhat wider field. But its merits are too well known to need any comment from us. Later researches into continuity go to show that Topology and not Graphic forms the real foundation and generalization of geometry; and the moment is almost at hand at which Reye's book must be superseded by one which shall lay the foundations of its logic deeper still. Meantime, this well-executed translation, with a useful preface, will serve a good purpose. We shall speak more particularly of the version in noticing the following part.

The general 'Catalogue of the Officers and Graduates of Yale University, 1701-1898,' has just been issued at New Haven, together with the fifty-seventh annual Obituary Record.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number five, is an elaborate description, with a colored map, of the distribution of the French, German, Italian, and Romanic languages in the cantons of Graubünden and Ticino. The number also contains a discussion of the Chilian-Argentine boundary question, an account of the California earthquake of last March, and an estimate of the areas of the river-basins of North American and Australia.

The Society of Civil Engineers of France commemorates the fiftieth anniversary of its foundation in the July and August numbers of its *Bulletin*. The Society was organized on the 4th of March, 1848, under the presidency of Eugène Flachat, and has gradually grown from a membership of fifty-six to one of thirty-two hundred. It consisted at first of four sections, but the recent rapid development of electrical science necessitated the establishment in 1892 of a fifth section, devoted especially to electricity. After occupying temporary quarters for many years, the Society was installed in 1897 in a commodious building of its own, which was dedicated with appropriate ceremonies in the presence of the President of the republic. The members of the Society have contributed notably to the success of the various expositions at Paris, and are among the principal promoters of the Exposition of 1900. Reports on the progress and development of public works, railways, applied mechanics, mines and metallurgy, industrial chemistry, physics, and electricity are contributed by members of the different sections, and may be said to constitute a concise history of engineering during the last half-century.

"The Extinct Rhinoceroses" are described by Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn in Part

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iii. of the first volume of *Memoirs* of the American Museum of Natural History. The work is planned to consist of seven parts, the present publication containing the first two. Part i. is devoted to the morphology of the skull and teeth, and Part ii. to a description of a series of skulls from Nebraska and Dakota, now in the American Museum. The writer discusses the different opinions regarding the classification of the rhinoceroses, but, believing an ideal classification to be an expression of phylogeny, is not at present prepared to propose one. He criticises the systems of Cope and Lydekker, which separate rhinoceroses upon the basis of their parallel progressive modifications, and contends that they can be separated only upon their divergent modifications. A preliminary bibliography, containing about 130 titles, accompanies this memoir, which is illustrated by numerous woodcuts and nine lithographic plates.

The Guayaquis Indians, a Paraguayan tribe concerning which very little has hitherto been known, are described in the second number of the Anthropological Section of the *Anales del Museo de La Plata*. The first portion of the work consists of "Ethnographic Notes," by Charles de La Hitte, and comprises a brief summary of previous accounts of this people, and a description of their habitations, customs, and language. In a second part, Dr. H. Ten Kate describes their physical characteristics, as typified in an adult and three children whom he had an opportunity of examining. The Guayaquis are small in stature and of a very low degree of intelligence, and are believed to be the remnant of an aboriginal race which is likely soon to disappear. Several excellent photographs accompany this work, which presents the attractive appearance characteristic of the publications of the Museum of La Plata.

The problems of art, among a people so highly æsthetic by temperament and training as the Japanese, interest not only lovers of the beautiful, but also the moralist and the genuine student of religion. The nude in art has been condemned by public opinion. The Minister of Home Affairs has prosecuted both editor and publisher of a magazine for violating the press law by inserting a picture of a nude female. Mr. Kuroda, late student in Paris and now professor in the Tokyo School of Art, who received favorable notices of his pictures in the French capital, on exhibiting nude female figures in Kyoto in 1895 created unbounded astonishment. Judgment by the court has been deferred. In spite of the frequent actual exposure of the person in Japan, the intentional expression of it on canvas seems to breed only disgust.

Thoughtful critics of New Japan have reasonably found fault with the present generation, because, while many of the old forms of benevolence went down and out with the feudal system, the new order failed to provide for the fresh claims of humanity and moral progress. A pleasing indication of better things is noted in the recent gift of the great Tokyo merchant, Okura, who recently devoted half a million dollars to the founding of a School of Commercial Education. The occasion of the gift was that of his silver wedding. About two thousand of the leading people of the metropolis attended the garden parties on three consecutive days. The presence of the highest officers of the Government was proof of the tremendous social advance of the merchant from the days of the seventies, when he had few rights which a sword-wearer was bound to respect.

—The spectacular side of the present war is not reflected strikingly in the magazines for July, probably because the newspapers with daily and weekly maps and illustrations have anticipated them. *Vixere fortes*, however, *ante* Sampson, and the *Century* goes back for the subject of an out-of-the-way illustrated article ("Confederate Commerce-Destroyers") to the cruise of the *Tallahassee* and the *Florida*, of whose gallant commanders it may be safely declared that, had their duty not been to burn and run away, they would have covered themselves with glory. Col. Wood of the *Tallahassee* (who seems to have belonged to both arms of the Confederate service) took part in one real sea-fight, for he was a lieutenant on the *Merrimac*, and does not seem to have enjoyed the work of marine highway robbery afterwards confided to him. "Miserable business is war," he observes sententiously, "ashore or afloat," apropos of the case of the *Glenarvon*, a fine new vessel from Thomaston, Maine, which he sent to the bottom. The skipper and his wife stood by, watching the scuttled ship disappear, all her sails set, with tears in their eyes. Mrs. Watt explained by saying, "He has been going to sea for thirty years, and all our savings were in that ship. We were saving for our dear children at home—five of them." Col. Wood seems to have failed to point out to her that this was mere mawkish philoprogenitive sentimentality, but Jingo literature and ethics did not then exist. A paper on "Equality," by James Bryce, will perhaps attract less attention than it deserves. In it he attempts to explain and analyze the different senses in which the word "Equality" is used, and to show how far we have attained equality, and how far it is attainable. Sir George Cornewall Lewis, or the lamented author of 'Liberty, Fraternity, and Equality,' were either alive, would probably object that Mr. Bryce considers too much one side of the shield. We all concede nowadays that equality in some sense is a social and legal and economical ideal; but with those who say nothing about ideals, but simply make their way in the world, there is also a constant ideal, made up largely of inequality. Any one who hungers and thirsts for fame, or wealth, or knowledge, or skill, dreams of his fortune as superior, not as equal at all. This is what is meant when it is said by Mr. Bryce that we must make sure that we are not dreaming of an equality which runs counter to natural laws.

—*Harper's*, besides two or three illustrated articles of a more or less manufactured sort, to say nothing of verses and stories, has a critical article on "Journalism," by George W. Smalley, which will not tend to increase that writer's popularity in newspaperdom. The paper, however, which possesses most originality is that called "A Man and his Knife," by Martha McCulloch Williams. It is an account of some "passages from the Life of James Bowie," the inventor of the bowie-knife. We shall never have any more Bowies, and therefore it is certainly well to pause and reflect on what only fifty years ago promised to become an American type. Bowie's life was that of a desperado and criminal; he was not merely a trader in slaves, but he and his gang arranged matters so that they could first supply themselves with negroes at the low price of a dollar a pound, then turn informers against themselves for violating the statutes for the suppression of the slave-trade, and have the slaves confiscated and sold. Buying them in at a ridiculously low price, they secured half the purchase-money as informers' fines, and thus put themselves in a position to sell the negroes in the open market (there seems to have been no attempt to prevent the absurd use to which the statute was thus put) for $500 or $1,000 apiece. The money earned in this traffic was spent in drink, riot, and murderous fighting, and so Bowie was led to invent his knife, adding by this means a word to the language, and his own name to the bead-roll of fame. Bravery he was always noted for—the true American desperado is invariably brave, and usually, his friends say, not a bully—and he died in the massacre of the Alamo; to Mexicans a cut-throat, and to Texans a martyr. But even the Mexicans knew that he "was too great a man to sleep with common soldiers" and buried him apart. "Thermopylæ had its messenger of defeat; the Alamo had none." The paper closes with the remarkable reflection that Col. Bowie was a true "man of his people, one with them in aims, in achievements, in passions, errors, and desires."

—The Western part of "The Workers," by Walter A. Wyckoff, in *Scribner's*, does not attract as much attention as did the Eastern chapters. This is partly because the "experience" is no longer in kind very new, and partly because the "labor problem" is for the time being made by the war a secondary interest. In the current number we are among old friends—the Anarchists and Socialists—and Mr. Wyckoff gives a curious picture of the interior of a sweat-shop, where the fiercest passions are aroused, not by the lowness of the wages, but by the order of an inspector to "clean up." A young Jew, his "wolfish eyes ablaze with the sense of sharp injustice," calls out: "You tell us we've got to keep clean—what time have we to keep clean when it's all we can do to get bread? Don't talk to us about disease; it's *bread* we're after; *bread!*" What the bearing of this on the doctrines of Socialism may be is not stated; but we have no doubt that the resentment of the dirty at the idea of being made to keep clean when their minds are fixed on more important things, is a real difficulty with which reformers have to contend. The clean are always inclined to impute to the workers a desire for everything which, in their own ideals, civilization and luxury "connote"; but where an indifference to dirt exists, how far can this be safe? This brings us back to the cynical *crux:* You wish to elevate the masses by giving them things that they don't want now, and cannot in the nature of things want until you have established for a class debarred from wealth the standards of the wealthy. Instead of improving the world, you are making it discontented. To this the old-fashioned reformer had a good reply: he could say that wherever he had planted the seeds of individual desire for cleanliness, he had in so far made the world better; the rest was with God. But what has the Socialist to say about it? Mr. Wyckoff is not a Socialist, and merely describes. "The First Shot of the War," and "The First Bombardment," by Richard Harding Davis, are journalistic.

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"Hot stuff" we should hardly call it; rather, perhaps, warmed-over stuff.

—The article in the *Atlantic* which will attract most attention is that of Mr. Bryce on "The Essential Unity of Britain and America." He urges the ratification of a general arbitration treaty, and suggests the recognition of "a common citizenship," securing to Englishmen in America and Americans in England rights not enjoyed by other foreigners. What these rights should be, he does not say. An American, Mr. James K. Hosmer, writing on "The American Evolution," goes, however, much further than Mr. Bryce. He proposes a federation, of which the members shall be the United States, Great Britain, and the English colonies. Mr. Henry Charles Lea has a paper on the "Decadence of Spain," which he attributes to pride, conservatism, clericalism, and corruption. No one can dispute his history; but his analysis only deepens the mystery of the problem. Why have these curses wrought the downfall of Spain, and in other countries been counteracted by causes making for civilization and progress? Every country in Europe has suffered from pride, conservatism, clericalism, and corruption; and why should one nation die of it, and the others slough these evils off? The priests have retained control of the education and conscience of the people; but how? We come up here against a blank wall, behind which we cannot see. We state the cause of the rise and fall of Spain as of other nations, in terms of the rise and fall itself. One nation rises because of a certain assemblage of good qualities; another falls because of a certain assemblage of bad qualities. But the philosophy of history does not enable us to say as yet what makes the resultant in one case progress, in another decay. We may, if we like, say that it is a matter of race, or see the hand of divine power in the cast of the die, or mere blind chance; or we may frankly say that we do not know. Buckle went to the other extreme, and said that he had found out, and could explain; but Buckle, too, left the matter where he found it.

—With remarkable timeliness comes a Government publication from the Weather Bureau relating to the climate of Cuba, with a note also upon the weather of Manila. Most of the precise meteorological information upon Cuba available is summarized in this pamphlet. An interesting comparison is made between the average summer temperature of Havana and Washington, showing eighty-two degrees for the former and but seventy-five degrees for the latter, while the average amount of rainfall in the Cuban city is seven inches more than at our capital. Though systematic meteorological observations seem to have been begun at Havana about 1850, the first regularly published observations, instituted at Belen College, Havana, in 1859, have been continued to the present time in annual volumes. For other Cuban localities, facts are very scanty, fragmentary observations only having been made at Ubajay (242 feet above the sea), at Matanzas, the San Fernando mines, Santiago de Cuba, and Trinidad de Cuba. The extreme length of the island is about 750 miles, with an average width of one-tenth that amount, the country gently undulating, not unlike England, though its highest mountain, Pico de Tarquino, rises 7,650 feet, and a lesser ridge practically divides the island into two watersheds whose rivers flow north and south. Variations in temperature and rainfall are caused largely by differences in altitude, and position with reference to the prevailing winds, which blow for the most part from the east, the "northeast trades" being especially regular and uniform. The warmest month is July. At Santiago the temperature is higher than on the northern and western coasts. In Havana sudden changes are frequent, one record showing in three hours a drop from eighty-nine degrees to seventy-four degrees. The warmest hours are between noon and two o'clock. Absolute humidity is very great, while the average rainfall is about fifty-two inches for the year; the rainy season extending, as in other tropical countries, from May to October, and the greatest rainfall occurring in the months of October and June. About one day out of three in the summer is rainy at Havana, showing heavy downpours of short duration, but with almost no clouds except during the showers. The wind velocity is about 8½ miles hourly in winter, 6½ in summer, and somewhat more on the northern than the southern coast. Little damage is said to result from the frequent thunder-storms, while tropical hurricanes, usually occurring once or twice in a summer, are most liable in August, September, and October.

—Although regular observations have been made and published for many years at the Observatorio Meteorológico de Manila (rainfall for thirty-two years and other phenomena for seventeen), general information upon climatic conditions is meagre. The average temperature is eighty degrees F.; April, May, and June are the hottest months, May showing eighty-four degrees as an average and sometimes rising to 100 degrees. September, the most humid month, shows 85 per cent. of moisture; April, the driest of all, but 70 per cent. The rainy season, as in Cuba, extends from June to October, the largest average fall occurring in September. Curious variations in amount are recorded, one year about 121 inches, another but 35 inches. Despite the dispassionate statements of concise scientific publications, imagination is still left much freedom in portraying the climatic conditions under which are now living so many unaccustomed Americans.

—A curious episode in modern university annals was the migration, about half a year ago, of eight professors of the so-called "free" Roman Catholic University in Freiburg in Switzerland. This institution was established some six or seven years ago for the special purpose of demonstrating that freedom of scientific research was perfectly compatible with the spirit and trend of the Church. It was called "free," in contrast to the universities of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, which were regarded as controlled unduly by the State. Experience has now shown that in this "free" university, the "Lehrfreiheit," the ideal so dear to Continental scholars, has not been able to establish its throne. The professors who have severed their connection with the Freiburg University, namely, Drs. Effmann, Gottlob, Hardy, Jostes, Lörkens, von Savigny, Streitberg, and Sturm (all, we believe, Roman Catholic laymen and Germans), have united in the publication of a Memorial (*Denkschrift*), in which they give the why and wherefore of their exodus. From this document it is apparent that the French Dominican monks are in absolute control of the University, and any teachings not in conformity with the interests of this order have in recent years brought down upon the heads of the offenders the opposition and even persecution of the fathers, which finally ended in withholding the salaries of several teachers who would not withdraw views not acceptable to those in authority. The *Denkschrift* is an interesting and instructive document, and again shows how inevitably ecclesiastical authority and freedom of scientific research merely for truth's sake come in collision.

GARNETT'S ITALIAN LITERATURE.

A History of Italian Literature. By Richard Garnett, C.B., LL.D. [Literatures of the World Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1898. Pp. xii+431.

The questions which naturally come to a reviewer in taking up this book are, "For whom is it written—for adepts in Italian literature, whom it may help to sum up and coördinate a wide course of Italian reading, or for beginners, whom it may serve as a guide, leading them by wise steps from book to book and from period to period?" The difficulty arises from the fact that Dr. Garnett has written much more than a literary manual and something less than a literary history, if we accept the literary histories of Ticknor and Taine and Scherer as the standards, in proportions and method, for works of this kind. The difficulty, however, has been solved by Dr. Garnett in the best way possible, for he has produced not only the first English history of Italian literature worthy of notice, but also a book which both the adept and the novice will prize. He is truly catholic in taste; he has an unfailing sense of the continuity of Italian literature, and is so widely read in the other modern European literatures that he can reinforce his criticism by comparison; he has unusual skill in epitomizing in a few lines or a paragraph the characteristics of the book or author he is considering. Thanks to these qualities, he has given us, in the compass of four hundred medium-sized pages, a work which leaves the impression of being exhaustive. Dr. Garnett quotes approvingly Jowett's dictum that Italian literature is "the greatest in the world after Greek, Latin, and English"—an opinion which is not likely to please the partisans of German or French, but is capable of being stoutly defended, in spite of the fact that for two centuries past French and (more recently) German have had much more than Italian to say to the world. We do not intend to enter on an academic discussion of this kind here; we wish merely to emphasize the fact, too little acknowledged, that a liberal system of culture should not exclude Italian.

In the earlier part of his work Dr. Garnett has a comparatively easy task, for the course of development in the first two centuries of Italian literature is simple and has been often surveyed; and as the great figures are few, the historian assumes the more interesting rôle of biographer. We believe that he is right in not assigning high rank to the immediate precursors of Dante, who have enjoyed, since D. G. Rossetti's book on them appeared, a rather exaggerated reputation. Cino da Pistoja, Guido Guinicelli, Cavalcanti, and their followers have all the freshness and naïveté that belong to the youth of a literature, but are their poems much superior to those of Wyatt and Surrey? From them to Dante is

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an advance so extraordinary that it is not to be explained on any product-of-the-times theory. Although Dr. Garnett describes clearly enough this sudden maturing, his pages on Dante are the least adequate of any in the book. He somewhat forestalls criticism by admitting that to treat Dante on a proper scale would require a third of his volume; nevertheless, it would have been possible to outline even in thirty pages the chief features of that great genius. No one can properly measure Dante's unique place in Italian development who does not understand that to the Italians 'The Divine Comedy' has been what the Bible has been to Protestant peoples. This at once places it outside the pale of ordinary epics, and suggests the measure by which Dante himself is to be judged. It would have been better to accentuate this point than to revive, as Dr. Garnett does, the old discussion whether Dante is a greater poet than Milton. We are surprised to be told that Virgil, in 'The Divine Comedy,' is the only portrait that "evinces any considerable power of character-painting"; that "Dante's virtuoso-like skill in graphic delineation has been favorable to his renown"; that Browning, alone among English poets, rivals him in "intensity of minute description"; that "Dante's cabinet pieces are more successful than his vast pictures." We cite these opinions without comment, because to comment upon them would merely show that the present reviewer and Dr. Garnett hold views too dissimilar to be reconciled by criticism. Of Browning, too, we should say that of all eminent English poets he was the least endowed with the qualities which are generally recognized as peculiarly Dantesque. We note further that, in his list of aids to the study of Dante, Dr. Garnett makes no mention of Lowell's essay, which is in every way more comprehensive, profound, and concrete than that of Dean Church. Prof. Norton's translation of 'The Divine Comedy' ought also to have a place in even the briefest bibliography.

Of only two other Italian masterpieces do we find Dr. Garnett's account insufficient. The first is Machiavelli's 'Prince,' which he declares is "antiquated." But, substitute "government" for "prince," and the main characteristics which Machiavelli depicted are still recognizable. Governments are as immoral now as princes were in 1500—that is, self-interest is their guiding principle. Take the men who have shaped European politics in this century—Metternich, Napoleon III., Bismarck, Gortchakoff, Disraeli—were they not Machiavellians? The unity of Germany was a noble consummation, but what of Bismarck's doctored telegram from Ems? The liberation of Italy is one of the most splendid achievements of modern times, but did it owe nothing to Cavour's Machiavellianism? Gladstone alone, of the great statesmen of our age, allowed moral considerations to influence his policy. And if we look about at home, what are our bosses, our Quays and Crokers and Platts, but the vilest varieties of the species which Machiavelli described with scientific precision? Until the acts of governments shall be regulated and judged by the same moral criteria as are now applied to the acts of individuals, we hold that 'The Prince' will in no sense become antiquated or obsolete: to interepret that treatise otherwise is to miss some of its significance.

The other work to which we referred is Michael Angelo's poems. What Dr. Garnett says of them is good, but he by no means sufficiently indicates their extraordinary value, nor enables a beginner to surmise that, after Dante, Michael Angelo is the Italian poet whose personality has most interested the world. He may not have "acquired the secret of poetic form"; he may not, like Petrarch, mark a stage in Italian and European literature; but his individuality, whether expressed in poetry, in painting, or in sculpture, remains among the few supreme illustrations of human genius.

After these few strictures on Dr. Garnett's book, we have little else save commendation to record. Such chapters as he has written on Petrarch or on Boccaccio, in which biography and criticism are finely blended, are models. His pages devoted to brief analysis of verse-forms, his little prefaces to such subjects as the drama, or epic poetry, or the novel, abound in the fulness and mellowness of real scholarship. Possibly, it would have been well to give a little more attention to the political condition of Italy, because after 1500 her literature was more deeply influenced by her political condition than was the case in England, France, or Germany. It would have been well, also, to remind the reader from time to time of the great artists who were contemporary with the writers at each period, for literature was only one of the many organs through which Italian genius expressed itself.

Many readers will be most grateful to Dr. Garnett for his account of recent authors, about whom little methodical criticism has appeared in English. He gives due prominence to Leopardi, whose centenary will be celebrated in July, and who is the most important figure of the past three centuries, not excepting Alfieri and Manzoni. To Giusti also he does full justice, although he overlooks the obvious parallel between Giusti's political satires and Lowell's 'Biglow Papers.' Coming to men now living, Dr. Garnett has much to say of Carducci, who has been strangely neglected by the English and American literary cult-makers. Perhaps it is because Carducci is more intellectual than Maeterlinck, Ibsen, Verlaine, and similar idols, that he has had to wait longer for appreciation; furthermore, he demands intelligence in those who would understand him. To D'Annunzio Dr. Garnett assigns high talents, with the possibility of achieving, both in fiction and in poetry, work more excellent than he has yet produced. De Amicis, certainly the most popular of living Italian writers, is somewhat curtly dismissed.

Mention should be made of the translations of Italian poetry with which the volume is enriched. Many of them are excellent, though for ourselves we doubt whether they would give a reader unfamiliar with the originals much real satisfaction. But Dr. Garnett is to be commended for having shown that the great verse-forms of Italian poetry are of a higher order than those which Swinburne and Swinburnians unto the third and fourth dilution borrowed from Old French. His final word is that the characteristic of Italian literature is refinement, as that of French is clearness.

The book has a good many misprints, due probably to the fact that the plates, being made in this country, were not revised by the author. We note a few of them: "Dinoi Campagni" for "Dino Compagni," p. 27; "benche" for "benchè," p. 58; "Arquà for "Arquà," p. 61; "consolàit" for "consolait," p. 77; "San Onofrio" for "Sant' Onofrio," p. 246, etc. Politian died in 1494, not in 1492 (p. 116). Dr. Garnett refers to the "Emperor of Germany" (meaning the Holy Roman Emperor), has "Guelfic" where "Guelf" would do, and "sensuous" where the implication is plainly "sensual." Recanati, Leopardi's home, is not near Rimini, but Ancona (p. 354). We have noted one curious mixed metaphor: Gaspara Stampa, we are told, "struck upon the fatal *rock* of *fluency*" (p. 195)! There is no uniformity in giving the titles of works: some of the titles are Italian, some English, and one at least (*Romeo and Giulietta*) hybrid. It would be petty to point out these slips but for the hope that by correcting them Dr. Garnett may make his work typographically worthy of the permanence which its scholarship and interest deserve.

CAPTAIN MAHAN'S IDEAL.

The Interest of America in Sea-Power, Present and Future. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D., U. S. Navy, etc. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 12mo, pp. 314.

Under the title given above, Captain Mahan has republished a series of eight papers which he has contributed to magazines during the last six or eight years, and in all of which he has industriously advocated making the United States a great naval Power among the nations of the world. His valuable naval histories, which have given him deserved repute as an author, have all been elaborations of the same theme, directly or indirectly. A strong pride in his profession naturally led him to wish that his country's navy should be second to none. The acknowledged aptitude of Americans for sea-life, and the heroism of our sea captains from Paul Jones to Hull and Bainbridge, and from these to Farragut and Dewey, would persuasively lead him to burn with the desire that he and his fellow-officers might command fleets of ships-of-the-line as numerous as ever followed the broad pennant of a Nelson or a Rodney. Zealous army officers, conscious of talent and of courage, have in like manner chafed under the limitations of our standing army, and have wished for an organization which could mobilize hundreds of thousands of trained soldiers as quickly as Moltke did in 1870.

It is not hard to excite a certain degree of popular enthusiasm with visions of military glory and of an awe-struck world, if not of world-wide conquests. Yet level-headed American statesmen have not failed to see, hitherto, that the progress of the country in prosperity and the growth of the people in the traits which mark true nobility and enlightenment will be best furthered by adherence to the policy of Washington and the fathers. A sedulous cultivation of peaceful relations, a restriction of our armaments by land and by sea to modest proportions which should attest our freedom from aggressive policy, a careful avoidance of complication with European quarrels and ambitions, have not only secured us the good will of great foreign Powers, which is based on the knowledge that we do not mean to meddle with them, but have been the conditions of such unexampled progress in wealth and in population as has made our country the wonder of the world.

European publicists have exhausted language in half envious admiration of the cir-

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cumstances which have enabled a people of their own stock to develop representative institutions upon a great continent in a temperate zone, isolated by oceans which are barriers against aggressive wars while they are speediest highways for commerce and for the human intercourse which makes for progress in art, in science, and in everything that uplifts the race. They have deplored the inherited antagonisms which have kept their own continent in a chronic expectation of renewed wars; which have made each nation strain to the utmost to enlarge, and still even more to enlarge, their armies and navies, till the burden upon their finances and the drain upon the population threaten to crush them as destructively as conquest by a stranger; which has piled up their public debts until payment is hopeless, and it is only a question how soon the mortgage upon the resources of a coming generation shall bring about bankruptcy and repudiation.

Thoughtful men among us do not find it hard to see how unspeakable has been our advantage over European nations in all this. They have seen, also, that the consciousness of the possession of power works subtly to demoralize the possessor and make him seek the opportunity to use it. He becomes a bully without knowing it. He is blind to the rights of others when they stand in the way of his whim or his passion. Jingoism is the expression of this narrow, ignorant, heedless impulse to glory in power and force, and to sacrifice the nobler ends for which human society should strive.

Captain Mahan has made himself in a peculiar way the mouthpiece of this tendency toward aggression. Starting with a naval officer's very natural and pardonable desire to magnify his office and to increase the navy of which he has been so creditable a representative, his papers have more and more appealed to motives and tendencies at war with modern ideas of Christian civilization. Looking about for arguments which may add more ships to our fleets, he becomes the advocate of a meddling policy that may have a finger in every pie and a chance for a quarrel in every foreign complication. Ignoring the patent fact that with a small navy and a very small army we have gone through a century of youth and physical weakness without finding European nations smitten with a desire to quarrel with us, he now clamors over our weakness, and rings innumerable changes on the assertion that the only way to prevent our subjugation is to increase our military establishments on land and sea till we shall match those under which Europe groans.

He sees on every side "dangerous germs of quarrel against which it is prudent at least to be prepared," and maintains that to retain our repose and the enjoyment of our commerce, "it is necessary to argue upon somewhat equal terms of strength with an adversary." Yet everybody knows that we built up a carrying trade second to none in the world before our civil war, and held it without disturbance till our own troubles let loose upon us, not the great navies of Europe, but three or four improvised commerce-destroyers under the Confederate flag. Our strength has been all the more appreciated by the world because it was so largely latent. That we kept afoot no great armies or navies gave assurance that we would not rush into serious quarrels on slight provocation; but the recognized tenacity of the race gave equal assurance that, if forced into collision, it would not end until our resources had been used to the utmost. We have been, in fact, more influential in the family of nations by reason of this apparent carelessness of present readiness for a fight.

It is curious to note how Captain Mahan's wish for great armaments affects his naval sense in international questions. He does not disguise his sympathy with Drake's buccaneering in the West Indies. He labors to stir the same spirit and to arouse a passion for conquest. We hear little or nothing of the rights of resident peoples to self-government, but much of the chance that if we don't grasp their lands some one else will. It is easy to persuade ourselves that the control of an isthmus, a strait, an island, is a necessity to a nation, "if not of existence, at least of its full development," and then "who can deny the right to predominate in influence over a region so vital to it?" Nay, once started in that line of argument, such a claim becomes "reasonable, natural, it might almost be called moral." It is a very short step then to take military possession and begin a war.

When such a writer as Captain Mahan is asked how great an expansion of armaments will be demanded by his argument, he finds it convenient to be very vague. It should be "adequate to the utmost demand that can then be made upon it, and, if possible, so imposing that it will prevent war ensuing, upon the firm presentation of demands which the nation believes to be just." Another mode of putting it is, "the estimated force which the strongest probable enemy can bring against you, allowance being made for clear drawbacks upon his total force, imposed by his own embarrassments and responsibilities in other parts of the world."

As to "just demands," we find the author holding that in international controversies "there is not uncommonly on both sides an element of right, real or really believed, which prevents either party from yielding, and that it is better for men to fight than for the sake of peace to refuse to support their convictions of justice." The climax is reached when Captain Mahan exclaims, "How deplorable the war between the North and the South! but more deplorable by far had it been, that either had flinched from the maintenance of what it believed to be fundamental right." There is no real standard of right and wrong, both sides believe they are right, it would be most deplorable for either to yield; therefore, war is the only right result! Can militarism go further?

As to the measure of preparation, the attempted limitations are futile, and most of all in naval warfare. It won't do to disclaim the need of considering "what is the largest army or navy in the world, with the view of rivalling it," for you can have no guarantee that your possible adversary will force his quarrel with you when he is embroiled with other Powers, but he will do it rather when you are so embroiled. Your only salvation, then, when once the gospel that might makes right is fully proclaimed, is in being the strongest, at all times and in all places of possible contact.

Shocking as this creed of Moloch is, and sedulous as Captain Mahan is in veiling it in circumlocutions, it is yet found only too plainly confessed. He closes his "Twentieth-Century Outlook" with the declaration that "Nothing is more ominous for the future of our race than that tendency, vociferous at present, which refuses to recognize in the profession of arms, in war, that something which inspired Wordsworth's 'Happy Warrior,' which soothed the dying hours of Henry Lawrence." The specious sophism is a double one. The noble characteristics of a Sidney or a Lawrence are not the natural products of war, but of the spirit of ideal devotion to humanity and of self-sacrifice conquering the fierce and savage influences of war, rising above them to a height that is the more sublime because it dominates the brutal tendency of bloody slaughter. To slip from approval of Lawrence's unselfish heroism to the praise of war itself—war, of which the horrid barbarities of Cawnpore were the typical features when unchecked by the influences of modern civilization and Christianity—is only to prove how wrong-headed the heat of advocacy may make an estimable man.

The author, in a still later essay, has complained that his critics do not heed the qualifications with which he accompanies his sweeping doctrines. It is simply the question which is the earnest expression of his convictions, and which a perfunctory repetition of conventional formulæ. When he significantly asks, "Is the outlook such that our present civilization with its benefits is most likely to be insured by universal disarmament, the clamor for which rises ominously—the word is used advisedly—among our latter-day cries?" what meaning can there be in his assertion that "none shares more heartily than the writer the aspiration for the day when nations shall beat their swords into ploughshares"? Would a universal disarmament, accomplished, be so great an evil that a general call for it is an ominous clamor? Then his real aspiration must be that ploughshares shall be beaten into swords.

When he sneers at diplomatic efforts to establish a system of international arbitration as "a realization in modern policy of the ideal of the mediæval Papacy," can he expect to be credited with a desire to promote peace? When he characterizes Washington's advice against entangling alliances as fit only for "the infancy of the republic," and adherence to it as being "bound and swathed in the traditions of our own eighteenth century," can anybody believe that he seriously desires to avoid meddling in the quarrels of other nations? When he declares that force, "that rude and imperfect, but not ignoble arbiter, . . . so far has won, and still secures the greatest triumphs of good in the checkered history of mankind," can he ask to be thought the champion of reason and of law? When he tells us that "communities which want and cannot have except by force, will take by force unless they are restrained by force," can we give much weight to the verbal admission that there is some respect for international law in the nineteenth century?

The spirit of the book is so plain that he that runs may read. Military glory and far-reaching domination are the great ends of man's aspiration. To give opportunity for these, the United States must have numerous distant, outlying possessions, each sticking out like a sore thumb to be hurt by whatever passes, each wanting its impregnable fortifications and its great garrison to defend it, each demanding its fleet to scour the adjacent seas, and great reserve armies and navies at home, besides, to overpower every possible antagonist. When the people's "so-

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ber second thought" is spoken, we do not believe it will be the adoption of such a policy for our twentieth-century programme.

Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harper & Bros.

Mr. John Murray, in his testimony before the Lords Copyright Committee, the other day, spoke of the practice of reviewing books by the method of stringing together extracts from them, as "a positive nuisance." But there are some books, and 'Collections and Recollections' is one of them, which can be reviewed in no other way. Mr. G. W. E. Russell (for we suppose he makes no denial of being the author) brings out of his diary—and, occasionally, out of his commonplace book—a delightful medley of things new and old, stories either true or *ben traviata*, as one of his pompous personages says. He has formal chapter-headings, and gravely squares his elbows now and then as if to give us a serious character-study or an essay on manners and morals or on parliamentary oratory; but you soon come to find that these are only so many between-jokes, so many devices for letting the reader's laughing-muscles calm themselves before their next exercise.

Now there is no way to characterize a good story except to tell it, and, with all due respect to Mr. Murray, and in the absence of the law he desires forbidding it, we shall exhibit Mr. Russell's wares by sample, duly advising our readers that our display by no means exhausts the stock or varieties, for a knowledge of the profusion of which they should apply to the central storehouse.

There are several anecdotes illustrative of Wellington's grim humor:

"'The Government was contemplating the despatch of an expedition to Burma, with a view to taking Rangoon, and a question arose as to who would be the fittest general to be sent in command of the expedition. The Cabinet sent for the Duke of Wellington, and asked his advice. He instantly replied, 'Send Lord Combermere.'

"'But we have always understood that your Grace thought Lord Combermere a fool.'

"'So he is a fool, and a damned fool; but he can take Rangoon.'"

. . . . . .

"Mrs. Arbuthnot (wife of the Duke's private secretary, familiarly called 'Gosh') was fond of parading her intimacy with the Duke before miscellaneous company. One day, in a large party, she said to him:

"'Duke, I know you won't mind my asking you, but is it true that you were so much surprised when you found you had won the Battle of Waterloo?'

"'By God! not half as much surprised as I am now, mum.'

"When the Queen came to her throne her first public act was to go in state to St. James's Palace to be proclaimed. She naturally wished to be accompanied in her state coach only by the Duchess of Kent and one of the ladies of the household; but Lord Albemarle, who was master of the horse, insisted that he had a right to travel with her Majesty in the coach, as he had done with William IV. The point was submitted to the Duke of Wellington, as a kind of universal referee in matters of precedent and usages. His judgment was delightfully unflattering to the outraged magnate—'The Queen can make you go inside the coach, or outside the coach, or run behind like a damned tinker's dog.'"

Mr. Russell speaks admiringly of Sir William Harcourt's intimate acquaintance with the poets, and cites the following as among his "extraordinarily apt quotations":

"That famous old country gentleman, the late Sir Rainald Knightley (who was the living double of Dickens's Sir Leicester Deadlock), had been expatiating after dinner on the undoubted glories of his famous pedigree. The company was getting a little restive under the recitation, when Sir William was heard to say, in an appreciated aside, 'This reminds me of Addison's evening hymn:

> "And Knightley to the listening earth
> Repeats the story of his birth."'

Surely the force of apt citation can no farther go. When Lord Tennyson chanced to say in Sir William Harcourt's hearing that his pipe after breakfast was the most enjoyable of the day, Sir William softly murmured the Tennysonian line:

> 'The earliest pipe of half-awakened birds.'

Some historians say that he substituted 'bards' for 'birds,' and the reception accorded by the poet to the parody was not as cordial as its excellence deserved."

Our Diarist confesses to a soft side for the clergy, perhaps because they yield him such material as this:

"A Dissenting minister, winding up a week's mission, is reported to have said, 'And if any spark of grace has been kindled by these exercises, oh, we pray thee, *water that spark.*' An old peasant-woman in Buckinghamshire, extolling the merits of her favorite curate, said to the rector, 'I do say that Mr. Woods is quite an angel in sheep's clothing'; and Dr. Liddon told me of a Presbyterian minister who was called on at short notice to officiate at the parish-church of Crathie in the presence of the Queen, and, transported by this tremendous experience, burst forth in rhetorical supplication: 'Grant that as she grows to be an old woman she may be made a new man; and that in all righteous causes she may go forth before her people like a he-goat on the mountains.'"

Plays, Pleasant and Unpleasant. By Bernard Shaw. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. 1898.

After reading the seven plays which make up these two volumes of Mr. Shaw, the remaining impression is one of mingled melancholy and indignation at the spectacle of so much wasted natural ability and perverted talent. But for the lack of a little sanity and sense of proportion, a man so observant, accomplished, and witty, and, above all, so independent and courageous, could scarcely have missed substantial success in any of the various departments of literature to which he has contributed at various times, whereas his writings are so disfigured by extravagance, eccentricity, and egotism—partly humorous and intentional, but largely unconscious and inevitable—that the genuine truth, power, and purpose contained in them are apt to be overlooked. They are read for the sake of the sparkling sayings and amusing conceits which abound in them, and are then forgotten as easily as last night's fireworks.

The most obvious commentary upon all these plays, written (it must be remembered) by a man who for years has been emptying the vials of his wrath and sarcasm upon the modern theatre for its conventionality, artificiality, and clumsy misrepresentation—charges, by the way, only too well founded—is their curious, almost comical indifference to the truth of life; not so much with regard to the deeper or more subtile influences and motives which actuate humanity, but in the every-day conduct and carriage of men and women, of the suggested types, in the situations and circumstances devised for them. Space, of course, will not permit a detailed examination of half-a-dozen very long plays, crammed with recklessly complicated characters, but an instance or two may be quoted by way of example.

To begin with the "unpleasant" pieces, to use Mr. Shaw's thoroughly appropriate phrase, which he apparently supposes to be excluded from the stage solely on account of their topics. This, certainly, is not true, or is true only in a very limited degree. As a matter of fact, his "Widowers' Houses," with its misleading and insignificant title, deals with a social problem of genuine interest, the exaction of rack-rents for rotten tenements by rich and conscienceless landlords, and suggests the outline of an ingenious and interesting story, which a playwright like Pinero, or even Henry Arthur Jones, might be able to put into effective theatrical form. But Mr. Shaw, having a good case, although not so good a one as he deems it (there being two sides to this as to most other questions), spoils it by overstatement, by all kinds of extravagance in drawing and excess in color. Here and there may be found exceedingly trenchant strokes of cynical humor and satire, but the characters themselves are distorted like the figures in the gross caricatures of Gillray. It is impossible to believe in any of them, from the transformed agent *Lickcheese* to the indisputably unpleasant heroine. As for "The Philanderer," it is difficult to credit that it ever could have been intended for anything but burlesque, although the author speaks of it as a topical comedy. It is full of comic inspiration, and delivers many a shrewd and telling hit at social shams and follies, but it is preposterously unfit for stage representation, and quite worthless, because wholly false, as a picture of any existing phase of society. Comment upon it, therefore, would be superfluous, but it is worth pointing out that the "new woman" in it is as utterly conventional and unreal as anything that could be found in contemporaneous drama, being nothing more nor less than a stock figure from the comic papers, a queer model for an "Independent."

The charge of conventionality, however, cannot be preferred against *Vivie Warren*, the heroine of "Mrs. Warren's Profession," a perfectly unpresentable and supererogatory play, but able and vigorous in spite of its manifold absurdities. This young lady, fourth wrangler in the Cambridge mathematical tripos, is depicted as a marvel of masculine common sense, suffering from occasional lapses into sentimental idiocy. The sane part of her, although much overdrawn, has a certain plausibility and fascination, but the most liberal application of the *varium et mutabile semper* rule cannot be made to account for her as a whole. It may be admitted, perhaps, that she is not altogether out of drawing with the group in which she poses. The story is grotesquely horrible, but is founded on the direst fact. In the described conditions there is no exaggeration, as all persons familiar with the subject can testify, and Mrs. Warren and the wretch Crofts are sketched with extraordinary veracity—Ibsen himself in this respect could do no better; but the accuracy of personal detail in these particular instances does not offer anything like full compensation for the abuse of the privilege of coincidence and the habitual disregard of probability and the ways of the world in the general scheme. In motive the play is wholly moral, even commendable

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in its bold effort to throw light upon a hideous, notorious, but scrupulously veiled iniquity; but in manner it is tactless, flippant, and dangerous because of the pervading cynicism that disguises the moral intent. Moreover, the theatre is no place for operations on social abscesses. Mr. Shaw deals a heavy blow at the hopes of the Independent Theatre, of which he has been one of the most vociferous champions, in proclaiming as its object the public advertisement of such an abominable traffic as this.

Of the pleasant plays there is not much to be said. They are excellent reading, full of amusing quips and jeers, smart cynicism, and all sorts of perverse cleverness, which includes an immense amount of shrewd observation, without any apparent capacity for logical or practical application. One of these pieces, "Candida," has been acted in England, with disastrous financial results, and has been hailed as a masterpiece by the "independents," but shares with its companions the fatal fault of being essentially unlifelike. Some of the personages, as, for instance, the fluent, capable, well-meaning, but egoistic parson, his practical, energetic wife, and her unscrupulous old mammon-worshipping father, are very human at times, but the youthful poet and the part played by him are outrages upon common sense. "Arms and the Man," thanks to Mr. Mansfield, is pretty well known in this country, and need not be discussed now. "You Never Can Tell," which opens in the vein of eccentric light comedy, but degenerates finally into untrammelled farce, is notable for its comic fancy and its exuberant spirit, and possibly might make a success with the right actors, if such could be found. A really fine comedian could do wonders with the old waiter. "The Man of Destiny," a Napoleonic episode, is not a remarkable achievement.

The influence of Ibsen is clearly discernible in Mr. Shaw's choice of topics and in his profuse and minute stage directions. It is a pity that he did not try, more successfully, to imitate his master in the matters of careful design, finished workmanship, and some deference to the laws of nature. In publishing these two plays he has furnished amusement for a lazy hour or two, has demonstrated the futility of mere will-o'-the-wisp brilliancy, and provided the amplest justification of the managers who declined to invest money in them.

Life in an Old English Town: A History of Coventry, from the earliest times, compiled from official records. By Mary Dormer Harris. [Social England Series.] The Macmillan Co. 1898.

The "series" plan must have proved profitable to the publishers, for a fresh venture of the kind is announced every month. Even the fastidious will think of it indulgently—though it has much to answer for—if only it finds a market, otherwise impossible, for a few such books as this. With a title and a shape which suggest nothing but would-be popular historical gossip, we really have here a scholarly and original contribution to the mediæval municipal history of England. The conjunction of present-day cheap bookmaking with the more competent scholarship now happily less rare than it used to be, is producing some interesting results; and this is one of them. The wisdom of the publishing serpent is here so thoroughly united with the harmlessness of the scholarly dove that the last chapter is avowedly a guide, and a guide both brief and sensible, to the sights of Coventry at the present day. It is an example worth following.

Coventry has already enjoyed more than average good fortune in its historians. Dugdale, in the seventeenth century, gave it a large place in his 'Antiquities of Warwickshire'; Sharp's 'Dissertation on the Pageants' is known to all students of Mystery Plays; Poole's 'Coventry' (1870) is an excellent specimen of the solid and expensive local history of the generation now passing away; and within the last three or four years the story of the parliamentary representation of the town has been set forth with minute care. But, strangely enough, no writer before Miss Harris has made any continuous or systematic use of the manuscript Leet Book of the town, a bulky folio containing a yearly account of municipal affairs from 1421 to 1555, and forming a priceless source of information on almost every aspect of contemporary civic life. It is in having utilized this for the first time that Miss Harris's service to historical science mainly consists. And now that the people of Coventry have been shown how full of interest is this treasure committed to their charge, it is to be hoped they will not long delay to follow the example of the corporation of Nottingham, and give us the Leet Book in a well-edited edition. If the taxpayers are lukewarm, there is an opportunity for private enterprise. The bicycle ought to do at least as much for the history of Coventry as the biscuit (*Americanè*, "cracker") has recently done for the history of Reading.

Miss Harris surveys the whole range of her subject, beginning with Lady Godiva and ending with the Pageants, making everywhere first-hand use of all the sources accessible. Her most original work, however, will be found in chapters 12 and 13, on "The Lammas Lands" and on "The Companies of the Crafts." From the former of these we learn to realize how important to the mediæval townsman were his rights of "common," and how vitally the "enclosures" of the fifteenth century affected the old agrarian basis of society. This is a truth which is being impressed upon us just now from several sides, *e. g.*, in Prof. Maitland's 'Township and Borough.' In the latter we get some welcome light on the relations between the greater and the lesser crafts, and between all of them and the magistracy. And both as craftsman and as champion of common rights we make the acquaintance of a borough agitator of the English type, a certain Lawrence Saunders—according to the poet of the people, "him that speaketh for our right"; according to the authorities, "a seditious man, of great presumption and obstinacy."

Still, thankful as we are for what we have got, it ought not to be concealed that from the point of view of the serious student of mediæval institutions there is much that is wanting. Miss Harris belongs to the school of Mrs. J. R. Green. Like Mrs. Green, she goes to the original authorities, and would not wittingly invent the tiniest fact. But she displays a quite excessive confidence in her own intuitive insight into the motives of her characters. Moreover, she is so bent on being interesting to the generality that she does not stop to explain what she knows of the institutional framework. But yet, dull as the subject is, this framework must be conceived of in some sort of way. For instance, much as we are told of the squabbles about the Lammas fields, we are nowhere given a plain account of the original agricultural organization of the town. What was the geographical extent of the "vill"; what became of the five "hides" recorded in Domesday? Or, again, the reader of the chapter on the Crafts who wants to know what the industrial life of Coventry actually was, would like to be told just how many crafts there were in Coventry, when each first made its appearance, and how many members each had. Probably the Leet Book nowhere responds to these questions in just this form, but it would be surprising if it did not authorize an approximate answer.

One word as to the illustrations. Some of them are very fair and really illustrate. The "Butcher Row" helps one to imagine a mediæval street, and Gee's picture shows what Lammas Day had become in the eighteenth century. But what ought to be the most interesting—the Earl of Chester's Charter, the page from the Leet Book, and Speed's map—are reduced so small as to be hardly legible. The editor would do well not to let his vaulting ambition thus overleap itself in the subsequent volumes.

Municipal Architecture in Boston. From designs by Edmund M. Wheelwright, City Architect, 1891 to 1895. Edited by Francis W. Chandler, Professor of Architecture, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. Part I. Boston: Bates & Guild Co. 1898.

The experience of Boston with its public buildings ought to be instructive to its fellow-cities. So far as we know, it is the only prominent city in the United States that has tried the experiment of a permanent city architect, appointed by the Mayor, under conditions that have given an adequate test. The first appointment was made as long ago as 1874, and the first incumbent, Mr. Clough, built good buildings, which were honestly carried out, with reasonable cost to the city. But an office which awards every year contracts to the amount of hundreds of thousands of dollars is a rock of offence to any municipal government, and Mr. Clough's successors quickly became the prey of the spoilsman. In the course of a dozen years, all the familiar evils of contractors' rings and political hangers-on had gathered about the Architect Department, as it was queerly called, and its expenses, at first limited to $5,000 a year, had in 1888 grown to $24,000. The cost of building done that year was $177,000; that is, the architectural service performed, for which the architect usually receives 5 per cent., was costing the city nearly 15 per cent.

In 1891 Mayor Matthews appointed Mr. Wheelwright, who took the office to reform it. He did reform it thoroughly—so thoroughly that not only were its expenses brought well within those of private practice, for the same amount of work carried on, but he brought upon himself the inexorable wrath of the rings of disappointed contractors, and of the politicians their friends. Then followed a notable struggle between the Mayor, who appointed and reappointed Mr. Wheelwright every time the vacancy came before him, and the Aldermen, who every time refused to confirm him. Af-

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ter four years of this, Mr. Matthews ceased to be Mayor, and Mr. Wheelwright gladly went back to private practice, leaving behind him an enviable reputation, a city architecture greatly improved by his incumbency, and a recommendation to abolish the "Architect Department," which was done by Mayor Curtis, Mr. Matthews's successor.

Certain important facts were exhibited by this Boston experience: that if the right appointment were made, a city's architectural work might be admirably and economically carried on in design, construction, and administration; that there was every likelihood that, in the long run, the right appointments would not be made; and that under the wrong ones the "Architect Department" was peculiarly apt for corruption, maladministration, and political abuses. If these things were not difficult to prophesy, the demonstration of them was irrefragable; and cities which are without the gift of prophecy may well learn from the demonstration.

The volume which now is handsomely issued by the Bates & Guild Co. is the first of two which are announced, and contains forty-three folio heliotype plates from school-buildings built for Boston by Mr. Wheelwright, with an introduction and a valuable essay on school-house architecture, by Prof. Chandler, and a commentary on the buildings, liberally illustrated in the text by plans and supplementary cuts. The buildings, all of quiet design, in a classic or Italian style, and of simple materials—brick, with a modest use of terracotta and cut stone—show how much character, dignity, and even elegance an able architect may secure with these slight means by straightforward, appropriate design, by skilful use of proportion and refinement of detail. Though of necessity pretty uniform in type of plan, they are models of good arrangement, according to the needs of school-houses as they are understood in this country. One wonders, as he looks them over, that the same architect should in four years have designed so many buildings for so nearly uniform uses, with so much variety and at such a level of excellence.

Prof. Chandler's essay on the planning and construction of school-houses is admirable—clear, practical, comprehensive, and judicious. He discusses in detail their arrangement, construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, hygiene, and furnishing, in the light of modern knowledge, and with the illustration of Mr. Wheelwright's large experience. We doubt if the English reader will find the subject so adequately treated elsewhere. We can hardly agree with Prof. Chandler when he repudiates that provision of the Boston laws which requires that school-houses shall be made incombustible throughout, still less when he urges that eighty pounds per foot is a sufficient allowance for live load on the floors, in buildings where, especially in the exhibition-rooms, the sudden surging of a large number of people is to be provided for. But we must praise his suggestions of economy in school-building, which could hardly be better supported than by this score of thoroughly built and well-designed examples, the cost of which, built in two, three, or even four stories, ranges from $2.50 to $3 per square foot of ground area, with only two exceptional cases where it rises to $3.24 and $3.32.

The execution of the volume, both plates and letter-press, is admirable in its kind—as handsome as could be asked; our only criticism is that it is rather sumptuous for the occasion. The simple buildings look a little overdressed in so elaborate a toilet, and the book is too big and probably too costly to have the circulation it deserves. Both Mr. Wheelwright's designs and Prof. Chandler's essay are valuable enough to be freely distributed among architects and students. We would, therefore, suggest that the whole text, with its incorporated illustrations somewhat extended, would, if reprinted in quarto form, make a book which would be exceedingly useful and which ought to be widely sold.

The New Psychology. By E. W. Scripture, Director of the Yale Psychological Laboratory. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribners. 8vo, pp. 500; 124 illustrations.

The present volume worthily fills its place in the highly modernistic series edited by Mr. Havelock Ellis. It consists in the main of a general account of all that is done in the psychological laboratories. We cannot say that it renders a satisfactory measure of justice to American work. The uninformed reader will gather that, except at Yale, the experimental psychology of this country does not rank very high, which is far from the truth. Considering how young the experimental science of the mind is, and that it is not of full-blooded experimental parentage, it is not surprising that, to a chemist or physicist, the psychological laboratories should not appear as marked by great experimental ability. It is probably a more significant fact that the results, after all, seem to be confined to a narrow department of the mind, although precisely what the significance of this fact may be it is too early to judge with confidence.

There is nothing at all in this book about cerebral physiology, except some words of exaggerated praise, accompanying the opinion that that study throws little light on psychology. The psychophysicists, however, can hardly afford to dispense with the aid of the cerebral physiologists, for it is a question whether both together have accomplished as much as Berkeley, Hartley, James Mill, Young, and the rest of the old associationalists.

Apart from its account of psychology, this book does, in a sense, mark a stage in the growing importance of that science. Fechner's 'Psychophysik,' from which the science dates, was published in 1860 (a date Dr. Scripture ought not to have omitted); but the present general interest throughout the scientific world in the subject arose about 1888, when Dr. Stanley Hall's *Journal of Psychology* was established, and when Prof. James's expositions were beginning to attract attention. Yet, young as is the movement, in this volume psychology already begins to jostle astronomy from her throne, as that one of the sciences from which the logic of science is to be learned. Thirty years ago, when Herschel's 'Outlines' was still in use in colleges, when Bertrand and others were still explaining to the general public how Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Keppler, and Newton had laid the foundations of science, the ordinary student expected that it would be in the course of his study of astronomy that he would become acquainted with the methods of scientific discovery and with the precautions needed in applying them. But the first four chapters of this book—one-sixth of the whole in space and about half its whole significance—are devoted to the general consideration of Observation, Statistics, Measurement, and Experimenting. This is in part due to Dr. Scripture's field of view being limited by a German horizon, and to a consequent confusion between psychology and logic, a science properly and in itself no more connected with psychics than with physics. Nevertheless, as well as the horoscope of twentieth-century science can be read, there are still much greater heights of importance to which psychology is destined to rise before its culmination; and its educational conjunction with the logic of science may be expected to become closer and closer.

The chapters on method are well enough executed to be exceedingly instructive to beginners in science, though the author does not always attain the American standard of clearness. For instance, in defining what it means in the doctrine of chances to say that a die turns up a particular face "about one-sixth of the time," Mr. Scripture not only talks about a "scale of certainty" (meaning a scale of uncertainty), which has nothing to do with the frequency with which the face turns up, but he also introduces the probability-function, thus substituting a theorem for the definition on which that theorem rests; and while he thus admits alien ideas into his definition, he altogether ignores several essential elements, and, in doing so, leaves the door open for serious fallacies.

Again, Dr. Scripture is excessively strict, not to say stern, in requiring that statistics and bodies of measurements shall conform to the characters of random collections. He demands, for example, that the number of extreme values shall not exceed that determined by the theory. This would, from a theoretical point of view, be perfectly just, provided the probable effects of given amounts of departure from randomness were calculated and allowed for. Practically, however, Dr. Scripture's rule would have the effect of stripping science in every branch of almost all observations except such as had prudently not been often repeated or not been made numerically exact. It would leave astronomy without a leg to stand upon. We are not surprised to find this hyper-rhadamanthine theory associated with practices equally removed from good sense in the direction of laxity. Thus, as a model of the proper treatment of observations, a series of eight observations are given, their mean taken, and their "mean error" calculated (not with strict accuracy, by the way, and several of the formulæ exhibit this fault), although of the eight observations one departs from the mean in one direction by four times the amount by which the worst of the others departs, along with all those seven, in the opposite direction. Dr. Scripture suggests that the "median," or middling value, would be better than the mean, which is as much as to say that, rather than rank the discordant observation as of equal value with the others, it would be preferable to use but one of the eight as a measure and all the rest as mere qualitative indicators. In reply to this, a remark in the previous chapter is pertinent: "Yet [if we substitute counting for measurement], in a case where a possibility of measurement exists, we are really throwing away an accurate method for a poorer one." Here native Yankee gumption peeps out. Had Dr. Scripture studied the works of first-rate mathematicians

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among his own countrymen, as well as those of fourth-rate writers in inferior German translations, he would have learned of a better way of treating series of observations into which abnormal observations are mixed than that of merely counting them. There are other instances of extremely lax practice in treating measurements; but the above example will suffice.

The portion of the book devoted to psychological experiments proper is divided into three parts entitled Time, Energy, Space. This adopts an idea of Ostwald, the chemist, that Energy ought to be substituted for Mass, as a fundamental quantity in dynamics. Nothing more feeble has been put forth by a man of ability since Sir Isaac Newton's commentaries on the book of Daniel. That where there are three connected variables, independent functions of them may be substituted for the variables themselves, is a matter of course; so that nobody will dispute that, if we choose to do so, we can, for example, instead of saying that momentum is the product of mass into velocity, say that it is the quotient of the kinetic energy divided by the velocity. In that case, one might say, the less the velocity, the greater the momentum; meaning that if a moving body burst so that a portion of it had the same energy as the whole had had, then the greater its velocity, the smaller would be its momentum. But because moving bodies do not usually burst and in that sense alter their masses, but do continually change their kinetic energies, it follows that Ostwald's system would be inconvenient in experience; and since the human mind is formed upon the ordinary course of experience, that system is equally unnatural for the human mind. It has, in fact, nothing at all to recommend it, unless it be its enveloping the whole subject in a fog of metaphysics.

A fifth part of the book gives the history of the new psychology. We notice one interesting remark, that Fechner's law was in part anticipated in Daniel Bernouilli's theory of "moral expectation." We are glad to acknowledge that that idle theory did contain the germ of a great truth, which Dr. Scripture has so acutely pointed out. We will not say more of the historical part, because we wish to avoid appearing utterly to condemn a work of a good deal of merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addis, W. E. The Documents of the Hexateuch. Vol. II. Putnams. $4.
Biological Lectures. Delivered at Wood's Holl, 1896-97. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Block, L. J. Capriccios. Putnams. $1.25.
Brownson, H. F. Orestes A. Brownson's Early Life, 1803-1844. Detroit, Mich.: H. F. Brownson.
Chailley-Bert, Joseph. L'Education et les Colonies. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Chester, Norley. Stories from Dante. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Collections and Recollections. By One Who has Kept a Diary. Harpers. $2.50.
Darmsteter, James. The Zend Avesta. [Sacred Books of the East.] Christian Literature Co.
Douglas, W. S. Cromwell's Scotch Campaigns. 1650-51. London: Elliot Stock.
Edgar, Hon. J. D. Canada and its Capital, with Sketches of Political and Social Life at Ottawa. Toronto: George N. Morang. $2.50.
Foster, R. F. Common Sense in Whist. Brooklyn: R. F. Foster.
Frankel, A. H. In Gold We Trust! Philadelphia: William H. Pile's Sons.
Furneaux, Henry. Cornelii Taciti Vita Agricolæ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Gannett, Henry. North America. Vol. II. The United States. [Compendium of Geography and Travel.] London: Edward Stanford.
Gautier, Judith. Khou-n-atonou (Fragments d'un papyrus). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gibbs, W. E. Lighting by Acetylene. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Greenough, W. P. Canadian Folk-Life and Folk-Lore. Illustrated. G. H. Richmond.
Groos, Prof. Karl. The Play of Animals. Appletons. $1.75.
Hope, Anthony. Rupert of Hentzau. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Hopkins, Prof. W. J. The Telephone. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Irving H. B. The Life of Judge Jeffreys. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Kerr, Joe. The Cheery Book. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Lafleur, Prof. E. The Conflict of Laws in the Province of Quebec. Montreal: C. Theoret.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LV. Stow-Taylor. Macmillan. $3.75.
List of Private Libraries. Vol. III. Germany. Leipzig: G. Hedeler.
Lowndes, M. E. Michel de Montaigne: A Biographical Study. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Lys, Christian. The Hepsworth Millions. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Macgoffin, Barnes. Where the Smile Comes In. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Mackie, Pauline B. Ye Lyttle Salem Maide. A Story of Witchcraft. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Masson-Forestier. Angoisses de Juge. Paris: Colin & Cie.
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